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REVIEWS

The Life of John Calvin, compiled from Authentic Sources, and particularly from his Correspondence. By Thomas H. Dyer. Murray.

PRIOR to the Reformation, Mr. Dyer tells us, Geneva, though nominally a fief of the German Empire, was in reality an independent little state, governed by a bishop, certain bodies of lay assessors, and the citizens at large. The unpopularity of Peter de la Beaume, who had succeeded to the bishopric in 1522, was one of the causes that facilitated the spread of the Reformed doctrines in the town. Driven into exile in 1527, he began to plot with the Duke of Savoy against the liberties of his see; and the Genevese, feeling themselves absolved from all duty towards such a ruler, took the government entirely into their own hands. The Protestant doctrines easily found their way into a city so situated.

It was not till 1532, however, that any very decided manifestations of Protestant spirit took place. "In the month of October in that year," says Mr. Dyer, "there entered Geneva a little man of mean appearance, with a vulgar face, a narrow forehead, a pale, but sun-burnt complexion, and a chin on which appeared two or three tufts of a red and ill-combed beard; but whose fiery eye and expressive mouth announced to the close observer a more remarkable character than his general appearance seemed to indicate." This was the celebrated French preacher, William Farel, who had been one of the first of his countrymen to embrace the Reformed faith. Born in 1489, he was forty-three years of age when he came to settle in Geneva; where by his fierce zeal he soon produced effects similar to those which he had already engendered in other parts of Switzerland. After three years of incessant dissension and turmoil, his disciples became so numerous as to effect a civic revolution. The Catholic system of worship was abolished—the convents were broken up and dispersed—and Geneva (August 1535) declared itself no longer an Episcopal See, but a Protestant Republic.

The Government of the new Republic was virtually in the hands of a municipal committee or magistracy called the Little Council, or the Council of Twenty-five. In this council, which had existed under the bishops, the highest rank belonged to four annually-elected dignitaries, called Syndics. Until the year 1457, the Little Council had been the only administrative body intervening between the bishop and the citizens. Subsequently, however, in order to render the General Assemblies of the citizens less frequent, two other councils had been created,—a Council of Sixty and an inferior Council of Two Hundred; both charged with deliberative functions, but both at the beck of the Little Council, with whom lay the right to nominate their members, and also the power of ordinarily convening them. Finally, under all these councils was the General Assembly of the citizens,—convened only on rare occasions. Its chief function was, the election annually of the four new syndics from a list of eight submitted to it by the Little Council. The constitution of Geneva was, therefore, it will be seen, a complex municipal oligarchy resting on a very slight democratic basis.

Such was the political machinery on which Farel had to act in order to carry out his views;—the moral material was even less hopeful. Mr. Dyer thus describes the state of Geneva under the episcopal rule.—

"Lively and excitable, the Genevese citizen indulged in an almost unbounded license. He loved

dancing and music, and when the season allowed of it, enjoyed those amusements in the open air. The doors of numerous wine-shops lay always invitingly open; and in rainy weather, or to those whose dancing days were over, offered, in addition to their liquor, the stimulus of a game of cards. Numerous holidays, besides Sundays, released the wearied tradesman from his warehouse or his shop, to seek recreation in the form most agreeable to him. Masquerades and other mummeries were frequent; but above all a wedding was the source of supreme excitement and delight. As the bells rung out a joyous carol, the bride repaired to church, surrounded by her female friends and companions, each adorned as fancy led, or as taste admonished that her charms might be set off to the best advantage; and, on returning home, the fête was concluded by feasting, music, dancing and revelry. * * The greatest dissoluteness of manners prevailed. Reckless gaming, drunkenness, adultery, blasphemy, and all sorts of vice and wickedness abounded. * * If the manners of the laity were corrupt, those of the clergy were as bad, or worse. The authentic documents just referred to bear frequent evidence of their profligacy."

Hard, indeed, was the discipline that was required to break such a people as this into the staid and strict rule of Protestant morality; and there were hundreds of the citizens who would have willingly been content with the mere change of ostensible system, leaving the old manners intact. But Farel was the very type of a true-hearted Puritan zealot; and no rest were the Genevese magistracy allowed to have till they had added a compulsory reformation of morals to the decreed reformation of creed and worship. Cards, dancing, plays, holidays, tavern suppers, questionable boddices and head-dresses,—all were cleared out of Geneva at one fell swoop. For awhile there was a mute submission. The young men of Geneva went regularly to sermon, and stayed at home in the evenings; but soon a sense of universal *ennui* seized the town,—and out of grumbled discontent arose attempts at open rebellion. Farel, with his few clerical colleagues, manfully withstood the tumult, and kept the reins as tight as ever. The probability is, however, that they would soon have been obliged to yield, had not Providence sent a coadjutor in the person of John Calvin.

Born at Noyon, in Picardy, on the 10th of July, 1509, Calvin—or, as the name was written in French, *Cauvin*—was a type of the scholarly French mind of that period,—clear, severe, logical. In no two men have the respective qualities of the German and French nations been better contrasted than in Luther and in him: the German, disorganizing, ideal, creative,—the French, formalizing, scientific, positive. Whatever movement a German may have originated, one would desire to see a Frenchman come in his track to express the substance of that movement in definite propositions. Destined to hold exactly this relation to Luther, Calvin, who was his junior by twenty-six years, came exactly at the proper distance from him. In 1530, when young Calvin, then fresh from his studies in the classics and in law, first began to exhibit his Protestant tendencies, all the materials had already been accumulated that were necessary for a formal evolution of Protestant doctrine. The influence of the Reformation had spread over a large part of the Continent, France included; and all kinds of intellects and all kinds of interests had had time to declare themselves with regard to it. Accordingly, from the very first, Calvin appears to have recognized the logical expression of Luther's movement as his proper task. For a while, indeed, another great work seems to have attracted him—that of thoroughly overthrowing the Papacy in France, and re-enacting in that

country Luther's Reformation with a difference. But for this enterprise, the immense difficulty of which soon became more apparent than it had been at first, Calvin's temperament—shy, morose, and, though resolute in resistance, by no means bold in action—decidedly unfitted him. A weak-bodied and dyspeptic scholar, he had none of that Boanerges power that thundered over crowds of men and over-awed them in the manly presence of Luther. Luther's instinct was to beard danger and defy it:—Calvin, as soon as danger appeared in one town, quitted it for another. If Luther ever assumed a false name in any of his literary productions, it was by way of frolic:—Calvin wrote under five or six *aliases*. Localities infected with plague were scenes of activity to Luther:—in one of Calvin's letters, where he speaks of a clerical colleague who had gone to attend the sick in a pest-house, he expresses his "fear" that it may be his turn to go next. Of all this, visible to us now, when we can compare the two lives as wholes, Calvin must have been conscious from the first. Hence, if he ever entertained the idea of acting the part of a French Luther, he soon abandoned it; and devoted himself to that task for which his very tendencies as a Frenchman, his personal characteristics, and the especial nature of his past studies, so eminently qualified him. In the year 1535-6,—being then twenty-six years of age,—he published at Basle, both in French and in Latin, the first edition of his 'Theological Institutes';—a work that immediately made him known as, after Luther, Melancthon, Bucer, Zwingli and others, one of the most considerable men among the Protestants of Europe. After the publication of this work, the young theologian, whose place of residence had for some years been very uncertain, visited Italy; but, finding himself in danger there, he resolved to return to Basle or Strasburg,—and it was while proceeding on this journey, by a circuitous route, that he reached Geneva in the summer of 1536. Farel, hearing of his arrival, waited on him, and pressed him to remain. The prospect of a residence in Geneva was by no means agreeable to the young scholar; and it was not till Farel, laying aside the tone of entreaty, assumed that of command, and threatened him with God's wrath if he did not accept the call, that Calvin allowed himself to be overruled.

Reinforced by such an accession of strength, Farel continued his struggle with the sensual element in the society of Geneva. It proved too strong, however; and Calvin had hardly begun his labours as a preacher and teacher of theology, when (1538) he and Farel were driven from the town by a popular tumult. Farel went to Neuchâtel and Calvin to Strasburg,—where he accepted a ministerial charge, and resumed, in very straitened circumstances, his course of theological study. Here, too, he married, after the following characteristic fashion.—

"In spite of the distressed state of his pecuniary affairs, Calvin was at this time looking for a wife to help him to bear his burthens. Calvin in love is indeed a peculiar phase of his history. He had now arrived at the sufficiently mature age of thirty; and as his imagination had never been very susceptible, so, in the business of choosing a helpmate, he was guided wholly by motives of prudence and convenience. In fact, he left the matter entirely to his friends, just as one would buy a horse or any other thing; giving them instructions as to the sort of article he wanted. Writing to Farel on the 19th of May 1539, he says: 'I will now speak more plainly about marriage. I know not if any one mentioned to you her whom I wrote about before the departure of Michael; but I beseech you ever to bear in mind what I seek for in a wife. I am not one of your mad kind of lovers who doat even upon faults when

once they are taken by beauty of person. The only beauty that entices me is that she be chaste, obedient, humble, economical, patient; and that there be hopes that she will be solicitous about my health. If, therefore, you think it expedient that I should marry, bestir yourself, lest somebody else anticipate you. But if you think otherwise, let us drop the subject altogether.' * * From another letter to Farel, dated the 6th of February 1540, it appears that a young German lady, rich, and of noble birth, had been proposed to him. Both the brother of the lady and his wife were anxious that Calvin should espouse her. The latter, however, scrupled on two grounds; because the lady was unacquainted with French, and because he was afraid that she might think too much of her birth and education. If the marriage was to take place, he insisted that his bride should learn French; but on her requiring time to consider of this, Calvin dispatched his brother and a friend to fetch him home another lady, and congratulates himself on the escape he has had. He speaks in high terms of his fresh choice. * * It appears, however, from another letter to the same friend, dated on the 21st of June 1540, that this match, of which he had thought so highly, was also broken off. * * After these failures, Calvin expresses a doubt whether he should prosecute his matrimonial project any further. Soon afterwards, however, by the advice of Bucer, he married Odelette or Idelette de Bures, the widow of an Anabaptist at Strasburgh, whom he had converted. * * Idelette had several children by her former marriage, in whom Calvin seems to have taken some interest. By Calvin she had only one child, a son, who died shortly after his birth."

The attempts made by a faction to re-establish the Papal worship in Geneva led, in the year 1541, to Calvin's recall to that city; where, as Farel did not return with him, he assumed all the functions of the ecclesiastical leadership. He resided in Geneva, with scarcely an intermission, till his death, on the 27th of May, 1564, in the fifty-fifth year of his age.

During the twenty-three years over which Calvin's effective ministry in Geneva extended, that town served him in a double relation: it was a place of safe and honourable residence from which he could act his part as a theologian over the whole Protestant world,—and it was a sort of small model community, wherein, far more easily than over a large country like France, he could carry out and exemplify his ideas on Church government and Church discipline. We are not sure that in Mr. Dyer's book sufficient justice is done to the subject of Calvin's general influence as a theological luminary to the surrounding Protestant world. We hear of his correspondence, indeed, and of his successive theological publications; but there is no clear laying out of the great area of Protestant opinion in such a way as to exhibit the mutual bearings and tendencies of Luther, Melancthon, Cranmer, Zwingli, Knox, and Calvin, and the comparative extent of the spaces over which these diverse spirits acted. Sometimes, however, we have an interesting glimpse of the sentimental relations that subsisted between the other great reformers and Calvin:—as in the following appreciation of Luther by Calvin, on the occasion of an attack on the Swiss Churches by the vehement Reformer of Germany. In a letter to Bullinger, Calvin says:—

"I hear that Luther has at length published an atrocious invective, not so much against you as against us all. In these circumstances I can scarcely venture to ask for your silence; since it is unjust that the innocent should be thus attacked without having an opportunity to clear themselves; although it is at the same time difficult to decide whether that would be expedient. But I hope you will remember in the first place how great a man Luther is, and in how many excellent endowments he excels; with what fortitude and constancy, with what dexterity and efficacious learning, he hath hitherto applied himself both to overthrow the kingdom of Antichrist, and to propagate the doctrine of salvation. I have often said that though he should call me *devil*, I

should always be ready to give him due honour, and to acknowledge him as a famous servant of God: although, as he abounds in excellent virtues, so likewise does he labour under great faults. I wish he would endeavour to restrain the violence with which he boils over on all occasions; and that he would always direct the vehemence which is natural to him against the enemies of truth, and not brandish it also against the servants of the Lord. I should be glad if he took more pains in searching into his own defects. Flatterers have done him much harm, especially as he is by nature too much inclined to self-indulgence; but it is our duty, while we reprehend what is bad in him, to make due allowance for his excellent qualities."

If Mr. Dyer has failed to do justice to Calvin in his general connexion with the history of modern thought, he has in part made up for the failure by the great care and minuteness with which he has narrated the story of his special connexion with Geneva and its people. What Calvin was to the world at large,—what blank the subduction of all that he did would leave in human affairs as they now are,—what special elements Protestantism derived from him, and why these elements seized on some parts of the Protestant world and not on others,—to nothing so high as this does Mr. Dyer's reach extend. But of Calvin the preacher and citizen of Geneva,—of M. Jean Cauvin as he presided at clerical meetings, or plodded along the streets of the town on his way to see one of the Syndics on important business, or to lay a complaint before the Little Council,—a very distinct idea is to be obtained from Mr. Dyer's pages. This idea, it must be said, corresponds far more closely with the popular notion of Calvin's character than it is usual for the authentic images of remarkable men to correspond with the current conceptions of them. The Calvin we see in Mr. Dyer's pages is a severe, hard man, of resolute veracity and principle, and bent on great moral ends; but destitute alike of imagination and of sensibility, jealous to an extreme degree of his own rights and reputation, and under the dominion of what is usually called a very bad temper. However much the reader may strive to think otherwise, such is the impression that Mr. Dyer's mode of telling his story necessarily conveys. That Calvin should set himself to carry out the task of moral reformation which had been begun by Farel, and that thus he should have to be in perpetual conflict with the libertine or sensual element in Genevese society, were things of course; and any other man holding his opinions would have been obliged to act in the same manner. A so-called Consistory or Consistorial Court, consisting of six clerical and twelve lay members, with himself as president,—this court meeting once a week for the trial of all offences of doctrine and of morals, and punishing by admonition, by excommunication, or, in extreme cases, by surrender to the secular power—such was the machinery of ecclesiastical discipline set up by Calvin in Geneva; and it was strictly in accordance with precedents and with certain prevailing notions of ecclesiastical right. But in working this machinery, Calvin seems to have exceeded even the limits of Presbyterian rigour. According to Mr. Dyer,—

"The most trifling slights and insults, such as most men would have overlooked with contempt, Calvin pursued with bitterness and acrimony. The Registers of Geneva abound with instances, which grew more frequent and more severe as his power became more consolidated. In 1551 we find Berthelier excommunicated by the consistory because he would not allow that he had done wrong in asserting that he was as good a man as Calvin. Three men who had laughed during a sermon of his were imprisoned for three days and condemned to ask pardon of the consistory. Such proceedings are very numerous, and in the two years 1558 and

1559, alone, 414 of them are recorded! To impugn Calvin's doctrine, or the proceedings of the consistory, endangered life. For such an offence a Ferrarese lady, named Copa, was condemned, in 1559, to beg pardon of God and the magistrates, and to leave the city in twenty-four hours, on pain of being beheaded."

The inevitable impression produced by these and other such facts narrated in abundance by Mr. Dyer, is, that Calvin was what would now be called an ungenial man, whose bad temper carried him on many occasions far beyond what even his severe theories rendered necessary. Hence probably the circumstance that, while on the one hand his enemies accused him of never forgiving anybody who had offended him, he does not seem on the other to have had any friends of that intimate kind that affectionate natures are sure to gather round them. Everybody either feared or respected Calvin;—it would be difficult to point out any one who loved him. His life in Geneva, according to Mr. Dyer's account, was an almost constant succession of quarrels with private individuals,—who are described in his letters as "beasts," "scoundrels," &c.; and though his firmness carried him successfully through most of these affairs, and gave him in the end a virtual supremacy over every man and thing in Geneva from the Syndics downwards, he was often so unpopular that he could not go out without danger of being hustled in the streets. The burning of Servetus, so far from being a casual slip in his life, was a deliberate and characteristic action, of which he willingly assumed the full responsibility, and of which he never repented. "If he (Servetus) does come here, and my authority be of any avail, I will never suffer him to depart alive,"—such were Calvin's words in a letter to Farel written in 1546; and though it was nearly seven years before Servetus gave him the opportunity to carry them into effect, he did not forget them.—The whole story of the life and death of Servetus is minutely and clearly told by Mr. Dyer.

Altogether, Mr. Dyer's book is a careful, solid, and scholarlike performance. As will have been perceived, he is by no means a panegyrist of Calvin;—indeed, he seems on the whole to entertain a dislike to him. In the hands of a biographer having a higher reverence for the clear and systematic intellect, coupled with the severe in disposition, we doubt not the Reformer would have assumed quite other dimensions than those in which he is presented to us by Mr. Dyer. Instead of laying down the book, retaining as our final impression of Calvin the picture of a severe, acid-looking valetudinarian walking slowly through the streets of Geneva, a terror to all the loose people of the place, we should probably have laid it down full of respect for a soul amongst the most earnest and influential that the world has contained.

The Village Notary; a Romance of Hungarian Life. Translated from the Hungarian of Baron Eötvös, by Otto Wenckstern; with Introductory Remarks by Francis Pulszky. 3 vols. Longman & Co.

Mr. Pulszky's preliminary notice of Baron Eötvös failed to interest us in its subject. It is natural that he should be able to regard the novelist in one point of view only,—as a partisan; but a sketch of the rise and progress of political ideas goes a short way to bespeak our favour for one whom we are about to meet as a tale-teller. Fit and fair prelude it may be to a controversial or historical work; but we long to escape into Fiction from "the question of questions," whatever that be,—and Mr. Pulszky's preface begot fears that we were

about to enter upon a political quarrel dished up in the guise of a work of entertainment. Luckily, however, 'The Village Notary' turns out to be merely a picture of manners and a drama of romantic incidents—not more political than Miss Edgeworth's 'Absentee' or Miss Rigby's 'Disponent.' By thus stating the fact in *advance*, we shall serve the romancer, though at the expense of his "master of the ceremonies."

It is true that oppression and iniquity—and those social injustices which end in outlawry of the generous and fiery, and which drive the innocent into crime,—are the incidents on which the tale turns. We have the amiable Tengelyi family—intrigued against by a wicked aristocrat, Lady Rety, and her abominable tools. Weapons of annoyance are put in the hands of the oppressor, by the countenance which the daughter of the Village Notary bestows upon the wife and children of a certain high-minded Robber Viola:—but these incidents all belong to the stock in trade of the novelist, let him be ever so far removed from joining those merciless preachers who mix up dogmas and their incidents till we cease to care for either. Baron Eötvös has great descriptive power:—as the following scene will testify. The robber's wife is on the way to warn her husband, who is in peril of capture, and whose safety depends on her reaching his retreat in time.—

"It was dark when they started. The weak rays of the new moon were absorbed by a dense fog, and it required all the instinct of locality which characterizes the Hungarian herdsmen to guide them over the vast plain, which offered scarcely any marks by which a traveller might shape his course. A beam of earth, the gigantic beam of a well looming through the darkness, the remains of a stack of straw, a ditch, or a few distant willows,—such were the only objects which might be discerned, and even these were few and far between. But the Gulyash drove his horses on, without once stopping to examine the country round him, for all the world as if he had been galloping along on a broad smooth road; and the very horses seemed resolved to do their best. They tore away as though they were running a race with the dragon of the wizard student, while Ishtvan, flourishing his whip, more in sport than because it was wanted, called out to them, 'Vertshe ne! Sharga ne! Don't they run, the tatoshes! They are the best horses in Hungary!' Willows and hills, well-beams and straw stacks, passed by them; the manes of the horses streamed in the breeze; the Gulyash, with his bundas thrown back, and his shirt inflated with the air, sat on the box as if he were driving a race with the Spirit of the Storm. The horses galloped away as if the soil were burning under their hoofs. 'Fear nothing, Susi!' cried the Gulyash; 'we are there before that cursed thief of a judge has left his house. Vertshe ne!'—And Susi sighed, 'God grant it!'—'Confound him, if we are too late. But now tell me, Susi, on your soul, did you ever ride in this way?'—'Never!' said she.—'I believe you. Sharga ne!'

are sure to be in time,' said he; 'the Garatch road, on which the justice travels, is as heavy as can be.'— 'I have no hope since I saw the vermin,' said Susi, sadly; 'they tell me it bodes one no good.'— 'Don't be a fool, Susi!' said the Gulyash. 'Have I not seen lots of vermin in my life, and I am still here and in luck. What are you afraid of? My horses are not even warm.'— 'Yes; but the cart may break. I am full of fears.'— 'It won't break, Susi; you see it's not a gentleman's carriage. There is a vast difference between a gentleman's carriage and a peasant's cart, just as there is between gentlemen and peasants. Your carriage is vast, and roomy, and high-wheeled, and cushioned, and painted; in short, it's a splendid thing to look at; but take it out on a heavy road, and down it breaks with a very geauce! it's full of screws and such tomfoolery, and only fit for a smooth road. Now, a peasant's cart goes through anything; and mine is a perfect jewel. The wheels are of my own make, and Peti has hoped them.'— Peti was not quite so confident. 'I hope there's no water,' said he, scratching his head; 'we've had some heavy rains, and if the low country is full of water'— '— Never mind, Peti, I'm sure it's all in good order, and you Susi, dear, don't be afraid! My brother Pishta, who lived on the other side of the river, died last week, when he was just about to leave the place. He got a passport and a landlord's discharge for the purpose. Those papers are of no use to his widow; but they are just the thing for you and Viola, for they will help you to get away. I know of a good place about a hundred miles from here, where you may earn an honest livelihood. You're not fit for the kind of life you're leading. I'll take you to the place with my own horses; you have not got much luggage. The great thing is to get out of the county; for it's a rum affair such a county, and the best of it is, that it is not too large. Don't you think so, Peti?'— But Peti made no reply, not even when Susi, catching at the faint ray of hope which fell into the gloom of her life, inquired whether the Gulyash's promise was not too good to be realised? The gipsy sat motionless, with his eyes staring into the darkness which surrounded them. They hurried on in silence, whilst the fog grew dense, and the sky blacker than before. No trace was left of either willows, mounds, stacks or well-beams; still they pressed forward until the splashing in water of the horses' hoofs stopped their progress. Peti's fears were but too well founded. The place where they halted was under water. The gipsy descended to reconnoitre the extent. As he advanced he beheld the plain like a wide lake, of which he could not see the end. He retraced his steps and walked to the right, but he found that the water stretched in every direction. At length he made his way to a dry place, to which he directed the Gulyash. 'Let us go on in this direction,' said he, as he took his place in the cart; 'there is some chance of reaching the forest. Be careful, Ishtvan, and keep close to the water, or else you'll lose your way. This here's the Yellow Spring.'— 'Christ save us!' cried Susi. 'We are surely too late, and my poor husband'— '— No!' said the gipsy, with ill-dissembled concern; 'unless the water has flooded the Frog's Dyke, we shall find the Black Lake dry, and if so we're safe. On with you, Ishtvan!'— 'Confound the Theiss!' said the Gulyash, as he whipped his horses on.— 'Nonsense; it's not the Theiss. 'Twas but yesterday I saw the river at Ret, it's as quiet as a lamb; but this water comes from the new ditch which the gentry have made. They make the water mad with their ditches and dykes.'— 'A thousand thunders! there's water here!' and he pulled the horses back, one of which had slipped and fallen. Susi wrung her hands. Peti jumped down and walked through the water. He came back and led the horses onwards. It's not worth stopping for, my beauties,' said he, addressing the horses; 'you'll see some rougher work by and bye if you stay with the Gulyash Pishta.' They reached the opposite bank, and hastened on until they were again stopped by the water. The gipsy wrung his hands.— 'The Black Lake is brimful. There's not a horse in the world can ford it.'— 'Stop here,' said Susi.— 'I'll walk through it!'— 'Nonsense, Susi! the lake is full of holes. You are weak. If your foot slips you'll never have the strength to get up, and then you are done for.' Hands off! the

go my bunda; God will help me! but I cannot leave my husband in this last extremity; and she struggled to get down.—'Now Susi, be reasonable! What's to become of your children if they hang your husband, and you are drowned?'—Susi sat down by the side of the cart. She covered her face with both her hands, and wept bitterly.—'Don't be afraid, child, said the Gulyash; 'either I go over or Peti does. You see the forest is just before us, and if there's not a road, confound it! we'll make one.'—'So we will, cried Peti. 'I'll cross the water, though the very devil were in it. Let me feel my way a little. Is not that the large tree we saw the other day?'—'May be it is, but I can't make it out on account of that confounded fog. There are lots of high trees in the forest.'—'To the left of the tree, about two hundred yards from it, there is a clearing in the wood. On the day I spoke of, we drove through it with the cart. Don't you remember?'—'How the deuce shouldn't I remember! There ought to be some records to the right of the tree.'—'So there ought to be! Now you go to the right and I to the left. If I can find the clearing, and if that's the tree I spoke of, I'll walk through the water; for it's a rising ground from that tree to the other bank of the Theiss.'—'I'll go with you,' said Susi, 'my heart beats so fast—there's a murmur in my ears—let me go! I'll die with fears if you tell me to remain here.'—'Susi, my soul, if I can cross the waters I'll come back, and carry you on my back. But stay where you are—stay for Viola's sake, if not for your own!'—They walked away and were lost in the darkness. Susi stood by the water, looking at the forest. 'Alas!' sighed she, 'I am so near him, and yet I cannot go to him!'—The poor woman was right. On the other side of the water, scarcely more than a thousand yards from the place where Susi trembled and prayed, we find Viola with his comrades, encamped in one of the few oak forests of which Hungary can boast."

Peti will be recognized by every one as the omniscient and most cunning tinker already often used in romances,—and last, and not worst used in the 'Giselle' of Mr. Palgrave Simpson. Viola, the robber, is a freebooter according to the interesting pattern which Schiller, Scott, and, *longo intervallo*, Mr. James have successively followed. But his trial (a precious exposition, by the way, of Hungarian justice) is capitably described,—and his final fate is as affecting as if it had not been foreseen from the first moment in which he appears.—Among the lighter scenes, that of the election is wrought up with great spirit and obvious resemblance to the life. The strength, however, of 'The Village Notary' lies in its romantic portions. These, though not new in incident, are so forcibly wrought and so skillfully varied by touches of local colour as thoroughly to carry away and interest the reader.

Diary of an Officer of the Brigade of Savoy in the Campaign of Lombardy. By G. M. Ferrero. Translated by the Comtesse Fanny di Persano. Low.

Extracts from Journals kept during the Revolutions at Rome and Palermo. By the Earl of Mount-Edgcumbe. Ridgway.

VOLTAIRE, who took a sardonic pleasure in tracing important events to mean or insignificant causes, would have been delighted with the opening scene in the Lombard revolution. It began about a cigar; and, after a series of most interesting and exciting events, literally ended in smoke. The whole movement of the Italian struggle for independence, nationality and free institutions is full of that mingled sort of interest which makes men laugh or weep as their natures may dispose them,—but to which no one can be totally indifferent. The drama begins with a note of the highest promise. The soul of the Peninsula seems really stirred: everywhere, from Palermo to Venice, from Lake Leman to the Gulf of Tarento, the energies of the people are awakened—feeling is exalted to

enthusiasm—the cry for unity, for the expulsion of the foreigner, goes forth. This excitement is hurled against the old organic bodies, and everywhere overwhelms them by the suddenness and weight of the attack. All Europe looks on the passing drama with wonder—much of all Europe with delight. At length, the day of promise seems to have come. For a moment, Italy appears to be free;—to be free, and by her own unaided efforts. Her exiles return to her from various lands. But the power which she has exhibited is the power of a chaos: nothing is organized. The fall of the revolutionary avalanche of passion is crushing—everything gives way before it; but the fall being accomplished, the compact organizations regain their old ascendancy. A few months of varying fortunes, and the armies are again victorious at all points. Venice, Rome, Palermo, Florence, Bologna, Milan, all receive their former masters within their gates. Nearly all of good that had been gained for a moment is now lost:—but not quite all. Some precious relics have been left;—left to cherish in the mind of Italy the promise of some more auspicious day, on which another blow for freedom may be ventured.

The two works under notice contain part of the material out of which the history of this unsuccessful, but not ignoble, drama must hereafter be written. Lord Mount-Edgumbe happened to be residing at Palermo when the first act of hostility to the King of Naples took place; and, being an English peer, thought he might intervene for the benefit of both parties before events should have arrived at a point whence an amicable arrangement would be impossible. With this intention, he entered into correspondence with the chiefs. Both parties seem to have trusted him more or less with the care of their interests. This position, though he bore no official character and could speak only the sentiments of a private person, is easy to understand. To the Sicilians it was enough that he was an Englishman; the confidence of the Neapolitans may be accounted for by the fact of his partisanship to King Ferdinand. This partisanship he carries so far as to insinuate an excuse for that objectless bombardment of Palermo which so roused the indignation of Europe,—and to propose to add a large portion of the territory of the Papal See to the hereditary domains of the monarch in question! His interference at all has been censured in high quarters at home; and he now publishes his memoranda, and copies of the letters written by and to him while engaged in the friendly negotiation, in his own defence. These papers bear on the face of them a warrant for their entire trustworthiness. They are calm, dispassionate and fair in their statements with regard to the Sicilians,—while the writer's avowed partiality to Ferdinand justifies the reader in accepting whatever he says against the Neapolitans without reservation. The cruelty and cowardice of the king's troops fill him with indignation. The way in which 10,000 soldiers and generals, supplied with all the munitions of war and protected by solid forts and bastions, ran away from a mob of ill-armed and unorganized civilians, is one of those curious feats to be paralleled only out of the history of the heroes who fled before the raw Roman recruits at Veletri, and valiantly slew the quiet citizens in the streets of Naples. We will borrow from Lord Mount-Edgumbe the statement of an incident which preceded their flight from Palermo.—

"One parting outrage must not be omitted, it being as flagrant an act as men in authority could be guilty of. Before quitting their barracks at Palermo, they let loose upwards of 2,000 forcats, confined in the adjacent prison, although they could not doubt that

any guard left to secure them would have been well treated by the people, and suffered uninjured to depart. That this was done in furtherance of their most nefarious desire to punish the inhabitants by the scourge of anarchy, is placed beyond a doubt, by their having subsequently sent on shore numbers of other convicts confined in the penal establishments on the Lipari Islands. This act of atrocity was little commented upon by the Palermitans, because they found themselves in a great degree at the mercy of the scoundrels let loose upon them; and who, it is but justice to say, have in a great measure refrained from playing the game they were set free to perform. A great many, indeed, being organized, gave efficient aid on several occasions in the maintenance of order." For such misdeeds of his servants, the writer holds the King of Naples blameless. The reader of Sicilian history will do well to read Lord Mount-Edgumbe's Journal along with the "Minto Blue-book" and Prince Granatelli's memoir.

From Palermo, Lord Mount-Edgumbe went to Rome,—where events were hastening to a still more serious crisis. But as yet attention was chiefly confined to the north of Italy; where Radetzky had been worsted in a series of engagements, and driven, with his Austrians, beyond the line of the Mincio by Charles Albert. A brief but lively sketch of the events of this unfortunate campaign is given in the journal of M. Ferrero. The whole weight fell on the little army of the Piedmontese. The writer no doubt has a prejudice in favour of the wisdom and valour of his own king and countrymen; but it is a prejudice in behalf of which much cogent argument might be urged. Charles Albert is no more, and the Italian campaign is history. We can stand apart from the passions of his trans-Ticino countrymen, and judge of his merits and his feelings as we would those of a hero in Plutarch. If he had once been false, as his enemies say, to the creed of his youth, the closing acts of his career were a long way to redeem that error. He struggled nobly for the liberation of Italy,—perilled his crown and his life on the event,—failed—and paid the penalty of his failure. No one lost more than he did by the ill-fortune of his country. This may teach charity for his memory. Nor can he be accused of so much want of good faith as falls to the lot of the usual ran of sovereigns. Of all the constitutions won by the revolution, that of Piedmont is the only one which is still something more than a bundle of waste paper. The reverence expressed by the soldier who fought with him living, and mourns for him dead, is a feeling which English readers may regard with respect. In reading the daily entries made in his journal by this Sardinian officer, we are haunted by a perpetual fear that the exertions made will all come to naught. Everywhere we find the fatal indifference—the want of unity of purpose—which ever presage the failure of great enterprises. Here is a specimen, taken on the eve of success. The officer and his comrades are at Palazzuolo; where they go to take coffee in the—

"house of a certain Signor Fiorino, the man of business of several rich proprietors of the country, wine-merchant, inn-keeper, and, I rather think, somewhat of an usurer. This man unites in his person the cunning and spirit of intrigue of Brighella, joined to the love of gain and suppleness of character of Pantalone, two types of Venetian comedy, immortalized by Goldoni. Signor Fiorino wears a cinnamon-coloured coat, knee breeches, and shoe buckles: although more than seventy years old, he is extremely active, and does not shrink from any degree of fatigue when he may gain some advantage. He observed to us one day, in a good-natured manner, 'My dear gentlemen, I am delighted to see you; you like *vino santo* and good coffee; you have money, your soldiers pay for all they take: long live the

Piedmontese! I ardently hope that you may be victorious before the autumn . . . that we may make our vintage. One must, however, be just to all the world; the Austrians left us quiet, we sold our silk very well. . . . Then, fearful of having betrayed himself, he continued with rather an ironical expression, 'Never mind! vive l'Italie! we are all brothers!' The country which extends between the Oglio and Mincio is very much behindhand, especially in all that concerns the comforts of life. The cooking is detestable; the interior of the houses badly distributed; rooms of which the doors and windows shut badly; bare walls, little or no furniture, immense beds to hold four mattresses stuffed with feathers, very uncomfortable in the summer; at the head of the bed one remarks everywhere a prodigious collection of images, crucifixes, and vessels of holy water; the panes of glass in the windows are cut in a lozenge shape; the doors are only fastened with clumsy bolts. Since the year 1400 the locksmith's trade has made no progress in this country. The land about Verona appears to have remained uncultivated for the last twenty years, and there is not a single forest tree. The common women, continually exposed to the heat of the sun, and their food being very unsubstantial, composed of maize soaked in water, are thin and brown, without that warm tint which gives such a charm to the people of the South: their costume is neither picturesque nor elegant. The peasants of Lombardy, in general, have no idea of their political rights: having always suffered much from war, their only desire is to enjoy peace at any price. Their patriotism fades before the fear of those evils, the sure consequences of war: as for the form of government by which they are ruled, they are completely indifferent."

When fortune changes sides and the tide of war begins to roll back, the Lombards grow still more lukewarm. The Piedmontese seem to be in an enemy's country. They can gain no intelligence. The Austrians sally out of Verona in two columns of 12,000; they march several hours, and encamp within a mile of the unsuspecting Sardinians. "However, there was not a single person generous enough, or sufficiently an Italian, to warn us of the danger." So it is on all hands. Want of spirit on the part of the Lombards—want of faith on the part of the Croats—such were the causes to which our author attributes the failure of Charles Albert. We have given an example of the first of these causes: we add one, of the second.—

"During the action, the Count d'Aviernoz, major-general commanding the brigade of Savoy, not having with him any officer of the staff to send to make observations, repaired himself, with a few rifles, upon a height called the Monte del Pino, between Sona and the Madonna del Monte. He immediately perceived an Austrian column, which presented itself at the mouth of the valley, headed by a white flag, and shouting 'Viva Italia! Viva i nostri fratelli!' The general hesitated a moment; but seeing the head of this troop advance and embrace the officer of the 2nd regiment, who was on guard at the post with sixty men, he no longer doubted the loyalty of this demonstration, and hastened to meet the Imperialists: these exchanged fraternal greetings with our soldiers. But this harmony was not of long duration; the traitors soon changed their attitude, charged their muskets, and at the command of their chief fired upon our men. Then was renewed a scene worthy of the heroic combats of the Middle Ages: Count d'Aviernoz orders a charge with the bayonet; the battle is bloody, and he soon remains alone with thirty men to struggle against two hundred. Notwithstanding, his courage does not fail, and three of his perfidious enemies fall under his blows; but finally, assailed on all sides, wounded by the bayonet in the abdomen, and by a ball in the knee, he is made prisoner. When his sword was demanded, transported with noble indignation, he cast it on the ground, exclaiming, 'I will not give up my sword to traitors!'"

There were two other causes, which the historian will have to take notice of, equally powerful with these—the Socialist insurrection

in Paris. Pope and promises ask it at the arm frontiers to desce the defen to surre moveme retired o recalled south Ita and Nap of num Albert, and the were ere volunteer from the Edgumbe men retr revolution very mor "These honourab quarters all the co sion of they expe Jouits be remained ing doub the army. was amw certainly never ca mentione here. Th prevente shame m on the sub a Govern any than of the P fortress, w by violen leaving a Yet these had the fa be now se Throu the journ contemp and Sign bombard reader w and Pap simple p ritory, gi and the compens We thin object to as the P important The His Years THER: 'L'Etat plicable Speaking says,—" bear all England The per Peace' l of the P power o illustrate who tre being "

in Paris, and the recall of their troops by the Pope and the King of Naples. Lamartine had promised to give freedom to Italy if Italy would ask it at the hands of France, and with this view the army of the Alps was assembled on the frontiers. While this imposing force stood ready to descend into Lombardy, Radetzky kept to the defensive, and the cabinet of Vienna offered to surrender Italy on terms. With the June movement Lamartine fell, the army of the Alps retired on Lyons, and a portion of its force was recalled to Paris. At the same moment, the south Italians returned towards Florence, Rome and Naples. With an overwhelming superiority of numbers, the Austrians had only Charles Albert, with his few regiments, between them and the capital of Lombardy. The Piedmontese were crushed; but the recall of the Roman volunteers carried the elements of revolution from the Mincio to the Tiber. Lord Mount-Edgumbe was present in Rome when these men returned; according to his statement, the revolution may be said to have commenced the very moment they arrived in Rome.—

"These men showed their gratitude for their honourable reception by refusing to march to the quarters provided for them, and in open defiance of all the constituted authorities, taking forcible possession of the convent of the Jesuits, from which they expelled the students that still occupied it (the Jesuits had been long driven away). There they remained in spite of all orders to the contrary, exacting double or treble the pay received by the rest of the army. Every day the question 'are they gone?' was answered by 'not yet, but they are to leave Rome certainly on Monday.' For months the Monday never came. This circumstance has been hardly mentioned in any of the accounts given of the events here. The fact was, that the dread they inspired prevented any from publicly alluding to it, and shame made all in private shrink from any questions on the subject. Assuredly it would be difficult for a Government to suffer a greater outrage or indignity than that of having within a few hundred yards of the Palace a body of mutineers, holding like a fortress, with sentries at the gate, a building taken by violence, and while exacting exorbitant pay leaving and contemning every authority of the State. Yet these men, I was told, at their final departure, had the face to seek the Pope's blessing, and may be now seen strutting about with medals since given."

Through the after events we will not follow the journalist in detail. He speaks with great contempt, but with little logic, of the Republic and Signor Mazzini. He bears witness to the bombardment of the city. He also favours the reader with a proposal for settling the Catholic and Papal question:—which consists of the simple plan of stripping the Church of its territory, giving the northern provinces to Tuscany and the southern to Naples, and, by way of compensation, settling a pension on the Pope. We think the Romans are about as likely to object to a dismemberment of their domains as the Pope is to a diminution of his political importance.

The History of England during the Thirty Years' Peace. By Harriet Martineau. Vol. II. (Second Notice.)

THERE is a remark of Sismondi's, in his *'L'Etat des Peuples Libres,'* which is very applicable to the times treated of in this work. Speaking of the political destiny of England, he says,—"England will examine all sides, and bear all sides *pro* and *con*;" and whatever England wishes to be, that England *will* be." The perusal of the *'History of the Thirty Years' Peace'* leaves a strong impression of the vigour of the English public will and its triumphant power over all obstacles. In fact, this work illustrates the view of those German publicists who treated of the "British Constitution" as being "the government of the British by them-

selves, according to their national prejudices and legal precedents:"—a mode of interpreting the disputed term "British Constitution," to which many acute thinkers, especially Sir James Mackintosh and Madame de Staël, have given their sanction.

The fundamental idea of English society since the battle of Waterloo has been, social and political reform. The Criminal Law—the construction of the House of Commons—the New Poor Law—the various Colonial questions—all are mere phases of the animating principle of the time;—the difference between political parties being for the most part on the questions of "How much should be taken down or left standing?"—and "How soon must change be made?" Where the public mind was decided, there it was triumphant; and where it was irresolute, there party questions of mere factious importance occupied and distracted its attention without evoking its moral energy.

As in studying the history of the Revolution of 1688 it is necessary to have clear conceptions of the whole previous period from the Restoration,—so in examining the era of the Reform Bill it is requisite to bear in mind the long previous agitations on the Catholic question, the party contests between Whigs, Tories, and Canningites, and the peculiar position maintained by George the Fourth to his people. The effect of the French Revolution must also be taken into account,—and allowance must be made for its influence. These motive causes, however, we will not discuss,—as political questions are foreign to our vocation.

The History before us confirms, as we have said, many of the views which philosophic thinkers have taken of our English society. It exhibits very clearly the many-sided character of our social life. "Our aristocracy," says Mr. Macaulay, "is the most democratic, and our democracy the most aristocratic, ever seen." Every chapter in this work testifies to the antagonism of classes in our society, and to the fluctuating fortunes of our aristocracy and democracy.

As we have already remarked, it would have been well if more personal knowledge of the actors of the time had been shown in this work,—such as is exhibited in Wallace's *'History of the Reign of George the Fourth,'* or in Louis Blanc's *'History of Ten Years.'* The great success of Mr. Macaulay's graphic portraits, and of M. Lamartine's vivid pictures, has given readers generally a taste for life-like and animated historical *tableaux*. It is very possible that this taste has been carried too far, and that Plutarch and Sallust are likely to be taken by popular writers of history as models before Thucydides and Hume. But the *'History of the Thirty Years' Peace'* is on the whole too bald and devoid of striking incidents to illustrate the manners of the age.

In confirmation of these remarks, we might point to the very curious passage in politics which took place on the death of Earl Spencer at the latter end of 1834, and the consequent removal of Lord Althorp, the leader of the House of Commons, to the Peers. Our readers will remember the sudden dismissal of Lord Melbourne and the Whigs in a manner that has scarcely a parallel, (Lord Monteagle, Secretary for the Colonies, was told by a private friend whom he met in Regent-street that he was no longer a Cabinet Minister!)—and the sending to Rome for Sir Robert Peel. On this striking chapter the work before us gives, not only no new information, but much less of the published details than would be interesting to the reader. This want of knowledge of persons and of classes of politicians is to be regretted. Thus, again,—we find that though Ireland and Irish politicians

occupy a large portion of this second volume, the fact of the excessive personality in parliamentary debates introduced by the Irish Repeal members is not adverted to. Every one acquainted with the contemporary history of the House of Commons knows that Mr. O'Connell and the Irish members devoted to his interest brought a fierceness and scurrility into our political discussions almost unknown before; sometimes making a debate in St. Stephen's as shameful a scene as a riot in the Dublin Corporation. In the debates on the Irish Municipal Bill, during the time of Lord Melbourne's Government, we find an Irish member using this language:—"The right honourable baronet [Sir R. Peel] was not, like another leader of his party—he was not a needy, desperate adventurer—a man of yesterday, speculating in the public ruin for pelf or plunder." The effect on political manners of these odious scenes was very bad; and the speakers at the Anti-Corn-Law League at first did great injury to their cause by addressing their audiences in exaggerated language and with galling personality—a fault against which they were cautioned by Mr. Cobden.

The influence of the Reform Bill on the so-called "Radical" party was very remarkable—contradicting the fears of one extreme and the hopes of the other. The author's picture of the parliamentary Radical party is striking.—

"From the beginning of the Reform struggle, the number of Radical Reformers in the House had never been less than 70 or 80: and in the last parliament they had been 150. It was strange that they had not yet been a powerful party; and it would be stranger still if they did not become so now. Now was the time for them to show what they could do, when the Whigs were humbly asking alms of them—petitioning them for ideas, and measures, and the support without which they must sink. These Radical Reform members were men of conscience, of enlightenment, of intellectual ability, and moral earnestness, of good station, and, generally speaking, independent fortune. They were so unlike the vulgar Tory representation of them—so far from being destructives and demagogues—that the sober-minded of the community might more reasonably trust them for the conservation of property than either the Conservatives or the Whigs. Whig government under Lord Melbourne was a lottery: and all propositions of the time for shaving the fundholder, for tampering with the Debt, for perilling the land by a return to poor-law abuses, for interfering with the rights of property in its public investments and private operations, all such destructive schemes proceeded from the rankest Conservatives, and were exhibited in Quarterly Reviews—Tory newspaper articles—Tory speeches on hustings. Not only in this sense were the Radicals no demagogues, and therefore fit to be the guides of the sober middle classes:—they were also no popular orators. They were as far removed from influence over the mob by the philosophical steadiness of their individual aims as from influence over the aristocracy by the philosophical depth and comprehensiveness of their views. They were as far from sharing the passion of the ignorant as the selfish and shallow nonchalance of the aristocratic. They perceived principles which the untaught could not be made to see; and they had faith in principles when Lord Grey preached in his place that no one should hold to the impossible: and thus, they were cut off from sympathy and its correlative power above and below. The aristocracy called them Destructives; and the non-electors knew nothing about them. All this should have been another form of appeal to them to make themselves felt in this gloomy time of crisis, when the fortunes of the nation were sinking at home, and storms seemed to be driving up from abroad, and the political virtue of Great Britain was in peril from a selfish powerlessness in high places, and despair in the lowest, and alternate apathy and passion in the regions which lay between. But there were reasons which prevented their making themselves felt.—They were not properly a party, nor ever had been. There

was not among them any one man who could merge the differences of the rest, and combine their working power, in deference to his own supremacy: and neither had they the other requisite—experience in party organization. They might try for it: and now they probably would: but it was not a thing to be attained in a day, or in a session. It was never attained at all, during this period of our political history. The chiefs moved and spoke; but they neither regenerated nor superseded the Whigs, nor could keep out the Conservatives, when at last public necessity overcame Whig tenacity of office, and the Queen's natural adherence to her first set of ministers, and brought in a new period marked by a complete dissolution and fresh fusion of parties. There was no other party which, in 1837, was known to include such men as Grote, and Molesworth, and Roebuck—and Colonel Thompson, and Joseph Hume, and William Ewart—and Charles Buller, and Ward, and Villiers, and Bulwer, and Strutt:—such a phalanx of strength as these men, with their philosophy, their science, their reading, their experience—the acuteness of some, the doggedness of others—the seriousness of most, and the mirth of a few—might have become, if they could have become a phalanx at all. But nothing was more remarkable about these men than their individuality. Colonel Thompson and Mr. Roebuck could never be conceived of as combining with any number of persons, for any object whatever: and they have so much to do, each in his individual function, that it would perhaps be an injury to the public service to withdraw them from that function: and when we look at the names of the rest, reasons seem to rise up why they too could not enter into a party organization. Whether they could or not, they did not, conspicuously and effectively. They were called upon, before the opening of the new parliament, to prove betimes that they were not single-subject men—as reformers are pretty sure to be considered before they are compacted into a party:—but to show that the principles which animated their prosecution of single reforms were applicable to the whole of legislation. If Mr. Hume still took charge of Finance, and Mr. Grote of the Ballot, and Mr. Roebuck of Canada, and Sir W. Molesworth of Colonization, and Mr. Ward of the Appropriation principle, they must show that they were as competent to the enterprises of their friends, and of their enemies, as to their own. Many of them did this: but the association of their names with their particular measures might be too strong. They were never more regarded as a party during the period under our notice: and it may be observed now, though it was not then, that their failing to become a party in such a crisis as the last struggles of the Melbourne ministry was a prophecy of the disintegration of parties which was at hand, and which is, in its turn, a prophecy of a new age in the political history of England."

The character of this party might be summed up in two words. The parliamentary Radicals were what our French neighbours would call "democratic doctrinaires." They were not, properly speaking, a party of action, and their leaders were deficient in showy and popular qualities. Sir John Walsh, in his 'Chapters of Contemporary History,' has some remarks on the Radical party which tally with those in the work before us. "Had the metropolitan boroughs or the Scotch constituencies been then able to lay their hands upon a Mirabeau, I do not know where he might have carried us, but no such Coryphæus appeared, and the chords which might have responded to his touch remained mute." Sir J. Walsh thinks there was a vital want of sentiment in the party. He says, "The case of the Dorsetshire labourers, if it could have found an English O'Connell to handle it, and to work upon the feelings by a few touches of simple pathos, and some descriptions in the style of Crabbe, would have had more effect than fifty such motions as the knowledge-tax repeal." ('Walsh's Chapters of Contemporary History,' page 58.)—We may remark that there is much in Sir John Walsh's general testimony which corro-

borates Miss Martineau's views on the Radical party; and in a future edition some corroborative quotations from the Tory writer's remarks would strengthen the text of this 'History of England during the Thirty Years' Peace.'

If the want of a man of action, with pliancy and steadiness of purpose, with popular qualities and capacity for affairs, was severely felt by the Radical party, the presence of such a man as Sir Robert Peel was of vast consequence to the fortunes of the Conservatives. The part played with consummate dexterity by this statesman during the first session of the Reformed House is not sufficiently stated in this work. He found himself in presence of a hostile audience with only one hundred and thirty members behind him. In his opening speech in 1833 he touchingly alluded to the difference of his position then from that of the time when he stood at the head of triumphant majorities or powerful minorities. We well recollect the air of deference and of graceful submissiveness with which he asked for the attention of the reformed parliament. There was a certain pathos in the politics of the vanquished Tory leader, which gave him the sympathy even of many of his opponents; and though in a small minority, he brought prominently forward his personal qualities before the new reform members. We repeat that Sir R. Peel's rôle at that time—from 1832 to 1834—is not stated with sufficient force or clearness by the authoress;—although he is made the hero of the second part, as Canning was of the first part of this work. Sir Robert's conduct in reference to the Corn Laws is made especially his title to honour, and praise is abundantly bestowed on him for it.

Without knowing the internal motives of the leading characters in a political crisis, it is impossible to judge of their conduct. In her excellent account of the affairs of Canada, Miss Martineau rightly shows how powerfully affairs were influenced by the animosity of Lord Brougham to the Earl of Durham, which first visibly flared forth at the Grey dinner at Edinburgh in 1834. In fact, she commences her account of the Canadian rebellion by a sketch of the scene at the Grey banquet. Miss Martineau severely censures Lord Melbourne for his timorous abandonment of Lord Durham to the fangs of his "deadly enemy," Lord Brougham. She writes:—"Lord Melbourne, with all his nonchalance and gaiety, had not spirit, activity and courage to stand by an absent friend under attack in the House of Lords; and especially when the attack came from Lord Brougham, who never had power at any time to unnerve him. All the ministers were aware of Mr. Turton's intended appointment before he sailed, yet Lord Melbourne gave it up to censure as if it were a point new to him." After recording the disallowance of Lord Durham's famous ordinance, and the retirement of Lord Glenelg,—Miss Martineau thus proceeds to describe the final catastrophe of Lord Durham's government, and the death of the noble leader of the English radical party.—

"It was on a fine September day, on returning from a merry drive, that Lord Durham and his family and advisers received the news of the disallowance of the Ordinance. His friend and best helper, Mr. Charles Buller, knew before dinner—knew by his countenance more than by words—that all was over—that their great enterprise was ruined. When they sat down in consultation, that adviser and friend would fain have persuaded himself and others that all was not over. That this was the result of an intrigue was to them clear. The Ministers and Lord Durham had a deadly enemy, who had given notice of what they might expect when he declared that he 'hurled defiance' at Lord Melbourne's head: and Lord Melbourne and his comrades dared not withstand this enemy even while the first lawyers in

the empire disagreed as to whether the Ordinance of Lord Durham was legal or illegal. What Sir J. Colborne had done was approved or passed over; and when, in a most critical difficulty which Sir J. Colborne should never have thrown upon him, Lord Durham used powers which Sir J. Colborne had used without question, his watchful enemy seized his opportunity to scare his friends from supporting him, as they were pledged to do. Considering all this, and that Lord Durham was to blame in not having furnished the government at home with sufficient documentary material for his defence, Mr. Charles Buller earnestly desired to hold out, for the high prize of success in retrieving the colony, and forming a new and sound colonial system. But he soon saw that Lord Durham was right in proposing to return. The Governor-General had not health for such a struggle as this must now have been. Energy and decision were not always to be commanded in the degree necessary under such unequalled difficulties; and death in the midst of the work was only too probable. Again—the colony was still in too restive and unsettled a state to be governed by an enfeebled hand; and while unsupported at home, Lord Durham was a less safe ruler than Sir J. Colborne, whom he would leave in his place. Again—it was now clear that the true battlefield on behalf of Canada was in Parliament. With his present knowledge in his head, and his matured schemes in his hand, Lord Durham could do more for Canada in the House of Lords than he could do at Quebec, while the Lords made nightly attacks which drew rebuke even from the Duke of Wellington, and thwarted the policy which they did not understand. Thus, resignation was an act of real and stern necessity; but, if not so, it was an act of clear fidelity to Canada. It was hastened by rumour of intended insurrection, which, under the circumstances, could be dealt with only by Sir J. Colborne."

"He did what he could to obviate to the colony the mischief done by friends and foes at home; and he did so much that he must ever be regarded as the originator of good government in the Colonies. Rarely has a greater work been done in five months than the actual reforms he wrought in Canada; but he did much more by means of the Report which he delivered after his return. By means of this celebrated Report, free and large principles of colonial government are exhibited in action, and endowed with so communicable a character that there are none of our more thriving colonies that do not owe much of their special prosperity to him; and probably few of the least happy that would not have been in a worse condition if he had not gone to Canada. By the utmost diligence in the completion of his measures during the few weeks that remained—by every effort of self-control, and by the quiet operation of his magnanimity—he averted as much as he could of the mischief done at home; but one fatal consequence was beyond his power. His host was broken. No malice, no indifference, no levity can get rid of that fact; and it is one which should not be hidden."

"He held to his work to the last. On the night before his departure, a Proclamation settled the rights of squatters on Crown Lands. As he went down to the harbour, crowds stretched as far as the eye could see—every head uncovered, and not a sound but of the carriages. This deep silence of sympathy moved him strongly; and he believed that this was his last sight of an assemblage of men; for he had no idea that he could reach England alive. As the frigate, the Inconstant, was slowly towed out of harbour, heavy snow-clouds seemed to sink and settle upon her, while over the water came the sound of the cannon which installed his successor. Those of his Council who remained behind, to clear off arrears of business, were alarmed, during their sad and silent dinner, by a report of fire on board the frigate; and a fire there was; but it was promptly extinguished. There was no intermission of storms up to the moment of the landing at Plymouth, on the 1st of December. While the ship was in harbour there, the weather was so boisterous that there was difficulty to the Queen's messengers in finding any seagoers who would undertake to convey on board the Inconstant the packet of orders to land Lord Durham without the honours. It was done by a boat being allowed to drive so that the packet

could be thrown on board. He met honours in abundance, however, on his landing, and all the way to London—crowded public meetings—addresses—escorts—every token of confidence and attachment that could cheer his heart. There was great joy throughout the liberal party when his first words at the Devonport meeting were known. They referred to his 'declarations to the people of Scotland in 1834,' as his present creed. But he disappointed the liberals by his magnanimous determination to devote himself to the retrieval of Canada, and to listen to nothing else till that was effected. Lady Durham immediately on her return resigned her situation in the Queen's household. Great efforts were made to bring about a reconciliation between Lord Durham and the Whig government; and his generosity aided the attempt. He could afford to do it; for he had never spoken evil of his enemies. Nothing had throughout been more touching to those who knew him than his slowness to give up hope in Lord Brougham, and his quickness in seizing on favourable explanations of doubtful conduct. He now required of his friends silence in both Houses about his quarrel: and he kept silence himself. While the newspapers of all parties were commenting on the weakness of the Whigs, and declaring that they could not remain in power 'beyond Easter at furthest'—(a curious hit as to date)—Lord Durham devoted himself only the more to the support of a ministry which, with all its sins and weaknesses, professed a liberal policy. He was soon joined by his coadjutors from Canada; and they worked together at the celebrated Report. There was more civil about small circumstances on the publication of the Report—worthy of mention only as showing how he was betrayed when he relied on the 'cordial support' of friends and the 'generous forbearance' of opponents. Much of his time and labour was devoted to the instruction of his successor, Mr. C. Poulett Thomson—afterwards Lord Sydenham—who wisely resolved to adopt the Durham policy with the utmost completeness. Many hours every day were spent in consultation, and preparation of measures; and to good purpose. Not only were Lord Durham's plans all adopted by Lord Sydenham, but his own best measures were planned in Lord Durham's house in London, prepared for introduction in Canada, and the agents informed and instructed. These duties done, but few months of life remained to the baffled Statesman. When he could give information about Canadian matters, or vindicate the principles of good government at home, or in the colonies, he was at his post in the House of Lords. But he was visibly sinking. In the summer of 1840, he was ordered to the south of Europe for his health; but he found himself so ill at Dover that he turned aside to Cowes, where he became too weak to leave his couch. Even then, and when he was unable to take any nourishment but a little fruit, there was so much life and animation in his countenance and conversation, that those who knew him best could not but believe that much work yet lay between him and the grave; but on the 28th of July he sank rapidly, and died in a few hours. He left his large estates and other property as much as possible at the disposal of his devoted wife—the eldest daughter of Earl Grey: but she followed him in a few months, leaving their young son to emulate the virtues of his parents as well as he might after the spectacle of their example was withdrawn.

Lord Melbourne's political reputation is dealt with severely in this work; but we observe no mention made of the celebrated trial in which he figured as defendant during his premiership. Observing that the authoress paints a very agreeable picture of Queen Victoria, we are surprised that she does not recollect how much Her Majesty was indebted to Lord Melbourne. A witness beyond suspicion has borne testimony to the part acted by Lord Melbourne towards his youthful Sovereign. In a remarkable speech delivered in the House of Lords, the Duke of Wellington affirmed the admirable manner in which Lord Melbourne performed his office of private and political adviser to the young Queen.

We will add from ourselves that the first

place where the Queen made the personal acquaintance of her Prime Minister, was at the State dinner which, according to old custom, the Monarch gave to the chief functionaries (including the Archbishop of Canterbury and others) on coming to the throne. The late Lord Holland had a droll story about this dinner; the arrangements for which had been left to Lord Melbourne and Lord Holland himself. All was nearly arranged, when, about half an hour before the dinner, Lord Melbourne rushed up to Lord Holland with the exclamation "Oh! Holland, we're ruined. There's nobody to say grace before dinner!" The Archbishop of Canterbury had sent an apology, being confined by illness. "But," Lord Holland used to add—"we caught the Dean of Carlisle by good luck, and he got us out of the scrape." The other ministers knew scarcely anything of the Queen, and the first person whom Her Majesty condescended to notice was Lord Melbourne.

To a work containing such a variety of useful matter for reference as this, an Index would be of great value. The Table of Contents prefixed is not sufficiently copious. The obituary notices scattered throughout the work are not always correct:—as, for example, at page 695, where we are told that "Maturin was an Irish clergyman, who wrote two novels in a Byronic style, which became popular, 'Bertram,' and 'Melmoth the Wanderer.'" But we readily allow for trivial blemishes in a work with such a multitude of detail; and in taking leave of the 'History of England during the Thirty Years' Peace,' congratulate the writer on the moral equanimity and mental energy which she has displayed in executing on a large scale the fullest history that we possess of our own immediate age.

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FRANCIS LORD JEFFERY.

The old in fame go from us; and we start,
Amid our common cares and busy ways,
To find they too are mortal and depart
Whose names have been their country's pride and praise:

Learned in her pages, from the storied days
Of a dead generation, with whose powers
And souls—that stood on earth like leaguered towers—
They coped and conquered, gathering early bays
On fields of thought their victories made ours:
They whom great cities boasted as their wealth,—
Whom strange and nameless pilgrims from far homes
Sought out in work-day paths, to gaze by stealth
Upon their earthly presence, ere they went
Where glory may not change nor love lament.

FRANCIS BROWN.

Edinburgh, 1850.

UNIVERSITY REFORM.

The State of College Trusts and of College Revenues.

THE state of College trusts is a subject which I must now press on the attention of your readers. My former observations [ante, p. 72] were addressed to prove that it will be impossible to carry the new statute into effect without a corresponding change in the existing constitution of the colleges.—Let me now adduce a case in point, to show that the new reforms will become a dead letter unless such changes be introduced as those which I have suggested.

In the year 1841 a statute was passed constituting the Regius Professors connected with the subject of theology a board, with power to appoint examiners on theology. The candidates approving themselves to the examiners were to be made the subjects of honourable mention. Now, at Cambridge, the so-called 'voluntary examination in theology' has succeeded, because it is practically involuntary. Though the University does not, the bishops do, enforce the passing it,—as a pre-requisite for holy orders. But what has been the success of the Oxford experiment? I think, unless I err greatly, that the first six years produced only three candidates,—and the last four years not one. The existence of the board in question is not even mentioned in the Oxford Calendar. So much for examinations at Oxford which have neither compulsion nor reward annexed to them,—only honour. In nine years nearly 3,000 undergraduates have become candidates for their degrees: out of these, three only have presented themselves as candidates for honorary distinction in what is supposed to be a favourite study at Oxford. Your readers can judge how far there is danger of the new statute sharing a similar fate, since it is an admitted fact that the new studies have a far less chance of success than that of theology.

I have been accused of a design to "throw utter disregard on the views of founders of colleges, and to misappropriate the funds provided by piety and charity for specific purposes." I doubt not that the parties making this charge are actuated by honest intentions; but I must take the liberty of telling them that they are in total ignorance of the real state of the college trusts. As the public are generally in the same condition, I must devote a little further space to the removal of this error. Your readers should be informed that the existing state of the great majority of the colleges in Oxford involves, as I have already hinted, a total violation of the trusts imposed by the founders.

I have lying before me the oaths and statutes of three important colleges in Oxford; and from the remarkable similarity that subsists between them, it cannot be doubted that they are a fair sample of the statutes of the colleges founded in Roman Catholic times,—which form no less than fifteen out of the nineteen colleges in Oxford, and include by far the richer and wealthier foundations.—The subject is painful, inasmuch as it brings before your readers the fact, that the Fellows of these colleges swear obedience to these statutes in their strictly literal and grammatical sense,—when in fact they can have no intention to obey a large proportion of their requirements. It is not my fault that this subject is dragged forward:—others compel me.

The oath is too long to quote verbatim,—but I pledge my word to your readers that what follows is an honest statement of its contents. Each Fellow swears to obey the statutes of the founder in their strictly literal and grammatical sense and meaning; and that not only he will so obey them himself, but that he will do his utmost to cause them to be so obeyed by others. He further swears, that every interpretation of them contrary to their literal and grammatical sense he will utterly reject and repudiate, and cause to be rejected by others.—The founder declares that no change shall be allowed in these statutes to all future time; and that neither Fellows, President, nor Visitor, nor all these united have any authority to alter the statutes, or to absolve from the obligation to obey them.—Now, in these statutes it is most plainly set forth, as I have already said, that one of the chief objects of the founders of these colleges was to have masses said in great numbers for their own souls and for those of their friends. The founder of All Souls expressly declares, *totidem verbis*, that he founded this college not so much for the promotion of literature as for the saying of mass

for the parties specified by him. I cannot trouble your readers to count the numbers of masses required to be said by the Fellows of Corpus and Magdalene, or give them an account of the prayers to be offered. No duty can be imposed with more solemn sanction than that of saying mass:—but, as I have already observed, the saying of mass is prohibited by law. The oath which I have described, however, is still administered to each Fellow. As the legislature has made the performance of this part of the trust illegal, it is idle to talk of the founders' intentions being obeyed.

It is no less certain that the colleges founded in Queen Mary's reign were founded expressly to promote Popery. My opponents are, doubtless, not prepared to advocate a return to these practices. I put it, however, to your readers to say, whether any change which I have recommended amounts to as large a deviation from the founders' trusts. On the contrary, I am satisfied that a candid perusal of the statutes will convince them that the proposals which I have made are a return to the intention of the founders, compared with the existing practice of the colleges. The founders of All Souls and of Magdalene solemnly assert that an object which they had in view in the foundation of these colleges was, the benefit of the poor. The Fellows of All Souls ought to be poor clerks:—the Fellows and demys of Magdalene ought to be persons totally destitute of wealth. The revenue of this latter college, we are told, is upwards of 30,000*l.* per annum:—that of the former upwards of 11,000*l.* In direct contravention of the founder's injunctions, into All Souls College, it is well known, none have a chance of election who are not connected with an aristocratic family. Large numbers of the existing Fellows are allied to the peerage. It may be said that some of these owe their election to the founder requiring his kindred to be elected without let or hindrance. But there are no poor Fellows in the college—as the founder directs. All are members of the aristocracy; and I cannot believe that these aristocratic Fellows submit to the examination in "plain song" which the founder requires as a prerequisite for election. Although the founder is very precise in prescribing the amount of time to be devoted to study, and to the exercises to be performed (which are numerous)—the exercises are totally neglected; and, in their stead, hunting is a very favourite amusement among the Fellows, few of whom even reside,—in defiance of the strict injunctions of the founder. Among the Fellows there is scarcely a high-classman.—Merton is a college in which similar abuses prevail:—this college and All Souls exercising scarcely any salutary influence on the interests of literature. But the abuse of trust in Magdalene is far greater, inasmuch as its revenues are much larger. This wealthy college, founded expressly for the poor, has become the patrimony of the rich. Elections are a pure matter of interest. I know a gentleman who considers himself to have a promise of a demys-ship for his son:—in due time the demy thus elected will become a Fellow. The literary requirements for succeeding to a fellowship in this college are the very smallest. When I passed the examination called Responses, a demy of Magdalene offered himself for examination. He was plucked,—and had been plucked at the previous examination. I think he subsequently became a Fellow. Nothing, however, can be clearer to any one who reads the statutes, than that the two most important trusts imposed by the founders are,—saying mass, and the election of the poor to the demys-hips and fellowships. To both obedience is promised on oath. The one is nullified by the authority of the Legislature; which, with the utmost inconsistency, permits the continued administration of the oath to obey, after it has forbidden the obedience. The other is disregarded without any authority but the pleasure of those whose oath of obedience is a necessary condition of admission to their fellowships.

All the founders order habitual residence in college, the daily performance of various academical exercises, and in due time the taking of specified degrees. The latter of these is performed to the letter indeed,—while the reality has ceased for ages. The influence of the Fellows in the University—of which, as I have said, they form a large majority of the resident ruling members—has abolished the necessity of any literary acquirements

whatever for obtaining any of the superior degrees. Degrees of M.A., B.D., D.D., B.C.L., D.C.L. are now proofs of nothing but money-payment and standing. When the founders required them to be taken by the Fellows, they were evidences of a gradually increasing proficiency. While adhering scrupulously to the letter, the University has abolished the spirit of this portion of the trust. The injunction of residence is disregarded by rather more than half of the Fellows of Oxford. The various academical exercises the daily performance of which is enjoined by the founder—of course included in the oath of obedience taken by the Fellows, and from the obligation to perform which the founder decrees that no power shall liberate them—are not heard of within the colleges. In fact, they have, with the old system of instruction, totally ceased to be performed within the University. It would be impossible to restore them to any practical purpose without restoring at the same time the scholastic system of philosophy.

This point has a very intimate bearing on one of my proposals:—that Fellowships should for the future be the reward of literary merit only; and consequently that youths under nineteen years of age should be no longer eligible at such elections. To those who think this a daring violation of the founders' wishes, I reply—the present practice is a more daring violation of both the spirit and the letter of their statutes,—and to return to ancient practice is an impossibility. The founders direct certain lectures to be daily attended by all the Fellows and Scholars—which lectures are now never given in the University. They also strictly enjoin the assiduous holding of disputations and the daily performance of other academical exercises within the college. Taking into consideration the saying of mass, the lectures, and the disputations,—the statutes make the most ample provision for the complete occupation of all the time of the Fellows. This circumstance explains why it was that founders directed the election for Fellowships to take place at such an early age. They got hold of a young man, and maintained him on the condition of his entirely devoting himself to saying mass, praying, and studying. They thought they had made ample provision by this means for his attaining a considerable and progressing proficiency in literary and scientific studies; and in the event of his not attaining that proficiency which would be indicated by the loss of the degree required by the statutes, they ejected him from his Fellowship. Let it be observed, too, that of the actual attainment of this proficiency the University—not the college—was to be the judge. Now, the degree is no longer proof of literary proficiency at all. All the exercises and lectures have ceased. The Fellowship once attained,—nothing prevents the Fellow from remaining idle all the rest of his life.—The Fellowships, besides, are become far more valuable than the mere subsistence which was contemplated by the founders. The times and their requirements are utterly changed. I put it to your readers to say,—who propose the greatest violation of trust:—they who advocate the maintenance of the present system, under cover of which a Fellowship is become a sinecure, in direct contravention of the intentions of the founder,—or they who call for the reform that I have suggested?—I might easily multiply proof of the violation of the statutes, and of the trusts imposed by them; but I forbear. I have already proved that a sound scheme of education at Oxford is entirely inconsistent with the maintenance of the present system pursued by the colleges.

A consideration of the funds possessed by the Universities and their colleges—and of the enormous waste of these resources—will lead us to the same conclusion.

The two Universities of Oxford and Cambridge possess together about 1,000 fellowships,—which have been computed to average 200*l.* per annum each. Since that computation was made, the ruinous practice of granting leases on fines has been extensively abandoned by the colleges:—their revenues must therefore have received a very considerable increase. I am unable to form any correct estimate of the increase which might with propriety be expected from this source. The leases of church corporations have usually been granted on such principles, that fines and reserved rent together do not

make one-third of the real value of the property. The Church, however, seems to have had a special exemption from ordinary law, to squander its resources in useless prodigality. The colleges, being lay corporations, are probably subject to greater restraints in this particular. An inquiry, however, is absolutely necessary to ascertain the real value of college endowments. In the gift of these colleges is an amount of church preferment worth between 250,000*l.* and 300,000*l.* per annum,—to which Fellows invariably succeed. This clearly forms part of the stimulus which ought to be given to literature by these endowments,—for the expectation of obtaining a college living forms no small part of the value of a fellowship. Besides, there is a revenue of 33,400*l.* arising from college offices and tuition money:—all enjoyed by the Fellows. There are forty-one headships of colleges and halls; the average of whose incomes—including the church preferment held by the Heads in their official capacity, and their residences—may be well set down as 1,000*l.* per annum each. There are about eighty-nine professorships, very unequally endowed. Since the computations to which I have alluded were made, some of these have received a considerable accession to their income, and others have been founded. Including church preferment held by the professors, we may set them down as worth 16,000*l.* per annum. The rent of college rooms is supposed to produce 26,000*l.* per annum. Besides, there are endowments for building and for various other purposes,—and scholarships and exhibitions, including those which are possessed by colleges, companies, and grammar schools,—in such numbers, that no data can exist for enabling us even to approximate to their value. In addition to these resources, the Universities in their corporate capacity possess a revenue of about 38,000*l.* per annum. The Fellows of the colleges, too, enjoy nearly a monopoly of private tuition.

With resources like these, well may it be asked,—What fruit are our colleges bearing? Cambridge teaches the mathematics, with some attention to the classics. Oxford the classics and theology,—with a very moderate portion of mathematics. The two Universities together do not contain more than 3,000 undergraduates; and in the midst of these endowments the expenses of a University education are enormously great. Of this state of things I must examine into the causes:—confining my observations chiefly to Oxford.

Oxford contains 550 fellowships. The only duty which the Fellow performs, as such,—is to attend the college meetings. Each of these Fellows admits no obligation imposed on him, in virtue of his fellowship, to contribute to the work of public instruction. Before he engages in that, he must be elected to a new office,—that of college tutor,—from which he receives a large additional emolument. If he act in the capacity of private tutor, his services can be procured only at the rate of 17*l.* 10*s.* a term. Although ordained under the plea that he has care of souls in the students of the college,—unless elected to the office of dean the Fellow exercises little or no supervision over the moral conduct of the students,—who are too frequently betrayed into ruin for want of such supervision. The founders, however, clearly expressed their will that the time of these Fellows should be fully occupied; but the course of time has destroyed one portion of the occupation assigned them,—and the abolition of mass, as I have shown, has freed them from the other. Now, in place of these duties, let the duty of giving public instruction gratuitously to the students be imposed on the Fellows,—and let none but men of high literary attainments be elected. This will be a much nearer approach to the fulfilment of the founders' wishes than the present practice.

Several of the Oxford colleges, with large and abundant accommodation, are virtually shut up against students. They consist of colleges of Fellows, or of Fellows and Scholars, mingled with a few Gentlemen Commoners. With the work of tuition these colleges altogether refuse to trouble themselves. It is to be lamented that these colleges possess the largest endowments in the University, as well as the most ample accommodation. New College, All Souls, and Magdalene cannot possess less than an income of 1,000*l.* per annum for every under-graduate whom they educate. All Souls, for instance, contains four under-graduates only. Its splendid courts are deso-

late. Its numerous suites of rooms are the property chiefly of non-resident Fellows. Its magnificent library is useless. New College and Magdalene between them may usually contain from fifty to sixty under-graduate members. If we have heard the income of Magdalene stated correctly at between 30,000 and 40,000l. per annum, their joint annual income cannot be less than between 50,000l. and 60,000l., exclusive of their church patronage. Corpus, with perhaps twenty-five under-graduates, possesses an income of 5,250l. per annum: yet neither does this college, nor Magdalene, nor New College educate its under-graduates gratuitously. I have selected these as undeniably bad instances;—though the other colleges do nothing in the work of education in proportion to their endowments.—Nor have we the consolation of believing that their prizes, entitling the possessor to a large income and to do nothing for it, are bestowed from considerations of literary merit. In each of these colleges, I repeat, with the exception of All Souls, a youth under the age of nineteen is elected either Fellow at once, or to a scholarship which leads as a matter of course to a fellowship. In New College, youths of this age are elected Fellows from Manchester school. In Magdalene they are usually elected to demyships from pure favour, and subsequently Fellows. In Corpus, these elections are managed so badly, that although one might well expect such prizes would allure a large collection of youthful talent to compete for them, the successful parties have seldom of late years obtained higher than third-class honours. In no less than 400 out of the 560 fellowships at Oxford, this evil system of electing under-graduates, and generally under nineteen years of age, is established by law. When a fellowship is elected to in this manner,—instead of its being the reward of industry, it acts as the incentive to idleness. I am going afresh over ground already touched on in my last letter,—but it is worth putting more strongly here. Colleges in which young men are thus elected Fellows ought to attract the great mass of the talent of the University. Is this the case? All I can say is, that if this be so, these talented youths abandon themselves to idleness in consequence of their premature success. Let us come to facts. Lincoln and Balliol are indisputably the most distinguished colleges in Oxford for the production of first-class men. The former never elects an undergraduate Fellow,—nor has it a single scholarship leading to a fellowship. The latter has only two scholarships which lead to fellowships. Oriel—a very distinguished college—has not one fellowship or scholarship of this description. Exeter—which frequently, though not necessarily, adopts the practice of electing undergraduate Fellows—seldom gets from them higher degrees than thirds or fourths. In Christ Church, its hundred students are all elected as undergraduates; and, although its number of undergraduate members is at least double that of any other college in the University, the first-class men which it produces are “few and far between.” This college, in addition, possesses a large number of valuable exhibitions. The dean, canons and students divide amongst them 22,000l. per annum, and possess Church preferment in their gift worth nearly 30,000l. I do not think that New College, all whose Fellows are elected as undergraduates, has produced a first-class man since the abolition of its monopoly of taking degrees without an examination. Magdalene, with its enormous endowments, is in very little better state; though sometimes, at rare intervals, a talented demy is appointed, to help to keep up the character of the college. Queen’s, St. John’s, Jesus, Pembroke, all with similar foundations, commonly produce among their scholars thirds, fourths and pass men. I believe that if a man is plucked for his degree in these colleges, it usually expels him from his fellowship. Of Trinity, Wadham, University, and Worcester I can speak with more commendation. But, it is evident that electing young men under the age of nineteen to a certain provision for life is ruinous to the intellectual character of the colleges which practise it. It cuts away at once every inducement to exertion. The public are foolish enough to think that these fellowships by themselves are literary honours.—Those colleges on which we are now animadverting swallow up four-fifths of the endowments of the University.

But if only the remaining 160 fellowships were open to the free competition of literary and scientific merit, something might be said in answer to the demands of reformers. Of these, however, no more than 30 are absolutely open. A few more, in Queen’s, Exeter, and University, are nearly so. The remainder are tied up under the most capricious restrictions. Nor is it even pretended in these cases that literary proficiency, united with irreproachable moral character, is the sole ground which determines the result of an election. The recent case in Queen’s College, which has been so severely commented on by the public press, is a flagrant instance in point. Moral fitness is made the pretence,—but the possession of Puseyistic opinions, or the contrary, too frequently determines an election. A case in which the Fellows of Exeter are said to have elected a gentleman in his absence who had not offered himself as a candidate, is very suspicious.

From many of these evils I rejoice to believe that the sister University is happily free. Its fellowships are generally elected to on principles of fairness. In fact, a job which is hardly heeded at Oxford, if perpetrated at Cambridge would produce a universal commotion, and perhaps a desertion of the offending college. The great majority of the fellowships are open and unrestricted:—for which advantage Cambridge is indebted to the interference of public authority. Only one college there pursues the pernicious practice of electing undergraduate Fellows. Still, the fellowships at Cambridge are sinecures. The state of King’s, its richest foundation, loudly calls for public interference. That its members should insist on their privilege of taking their degrees without examination by the University, is disgraceful. Compare this college with Trinity,—and mark the contrast!

Again, Oxford compared with Cambridge, is contrasted most unfavourably in the particular of the persons who receive the appointment of Heads of colleges. Nearly all the Cambridge Heads are distinguished at least by the possession of the highest University honours. Several among them possess other high literary distinctions, and are eminent for attainments in Science. The majority of the Oxford Heads, on the contrary, have either taken no honours at all or very low ones:—nor do they redeem this defect by the possession of literary distinctions of any other kind. It seems strange indeed, that a person should be selected as Head of a college who is not distinguished by honours even in his own University! Five tenths of the Heads of the Oxford colleges are unknown in either the literary or the scientific world. Principles of the narrowest kind determine elections of this description. In several colleges, I believe on the next vacancy the contest will be whether Puseyism or the contrary shall distinguish its future Head. Unless I am misinformed, active preparations are already making for a contest of this description in colleges where an early vacancy is expected. The inefficiency of the Heads of colleges as a body is notorious. We seldom meet with an Oxford man who does not speak of the qualifications of the body with contempt.—Nor will this be otherwise till effectual measures are taken to purify the mode of conducting these elections.

With a judicious arrangement of their finances, what a powerful influence might our Universities be made to exert on the literature and science of the country,—by rewarding distinguished merit in their several departments! How vast an interest might they exert in promoting the cause of sound education! By a simple re-distribution of their revenues, a state of things would be brought about far more in conformity with the donors’ intentions, and which at the same time would provide maintenance and reward for a thousand literary and scientific men whose labours would bring honour on their country. On the continent, men the most distinguished for literature and science are the professors in the Universities. In England, the Professors exercise the most inconsiderable influence on the Universities,—and the Universities on the nation.

How important an influence would a thousand individuals eminently qualified to teach produce on the general education of the country! Let properly qualified persons be elected to the Fellowships, and the duty of future teaching be imposed on them,—in place of those duties which are become either obso-

lete or impossible,—and tuition in our Universities might be either nearly or quite gratuitous. This would at once operate in the reduction of the expense of a University education; and thus enable vast numbers of the middle classes to enjoy a benefit from which they are now practically excluded. If the expenses of a University education could be reduced to 80l. per annum, numbers to whom it is now unattainable would joyfully avail themselves of its advantages. Let the Universities be made in reality what their name imports,—institutions in which the whole range of human knowledge is taught and studied.—Fruits of this kind, one might expect, would be the result of a Royal Commission of Inquiry into the state of their revenues and condition. The object of every one interested in their welfare must be, to see the endowments of our Universities become the rewards of eminent literary and scientific proficiency,—their Professors be the leading characters of the day, in their respective departments of literature and science,—and themselves be the real instructors of the nation in both.

For the purpose of identifying myself with this and with my former letter, I now conclude by signing myself,
A UNIVERSITY GRADUATE.

P.S.—Since the preceding article was written, my attention has been directed to the *Oxford Herald* of the 26th of January; in which an attempt is made to answer my former letter,—on the impossibility of working the new statute with the existing college machinery. The observations above made are a virtual answer to most of the arguments and assertions of the *Herald*;—and anything but the argumentative part of the question I pass over as unworthy of attention.—To a point or two stated by the *Herald*, however, I will reply in few words.

I beg to assure the *Herald* that I have not forgotten that there is a Visitor to each college:—but his authority is little more than nominal. At least, such is the case in All Souls, Corpus, and Magdalene Colleges. He can only interpret the strictest letter, as distinguished from the spirit, of the statutes. He cannot take into his consideration the contingencies of modern times, which could not have been foreseen by the founder. The visitation is either a mere formality, or never put in force. Has the *Herald* forgotten that there is a Visitor to Rochester Cathedral,—who, alas! never visits it? Has it forgotten that the same is the case with respect to St. Paul’s School,—and hundreds of other schools? Has it forgotten the observations of Judge Patteson on the Whiston case? I must beg to remind the *Herald* of the recent judgment of a celebrated Visitor of one of the Oxford colleges, to whose authority I am sure it will bow,—the Bishop of Exeter. That prelate asserted in a judgment of his, as Visitor, not eight years old,—that there were points in the conduct of Exeter College involving apparent gross injustice, on which an appellant did not unreasonably dwell, but which he, as Visitor, had power neither to redress nor to inquire into.—By the statutes before me, the Visitor is expressly precluded from inquiring into elections.

But the *Herald* tells us, that the Visitor, under certain limitations, has power to dispense with the observance of statutes,—and that such deviations as do exist are actually sanctioned by this authority. I could scarcely believe my own eyes when I read this passage! Doubtless, the writer in the *Herald* has access to excellent sources of information which are closed against me:—but I must inform him that he has overlooked three very important colleges—Corpus, Magdalene, and All Souls,—the statutes of which are actually open before me. The founders expressly declare in these statutes, that the Visitors have no authority to dispense with any statute of theirs, or to enact any new one which the founder has not sanctioned,—and that in case of their attempting to do so, the founders, by their authority, expressly free the Fellows from all obligation!

The *Herald* boldly challenges the scrutiny of the whole scientific world as to the competency of the existing college Professors. The great burden of my lamentation was, that under the existing system Professors, however competent, cannot get a class. The competency, however, of some of the Professors is far from being beyond dispute. With regard to such men as Prof. Buckland, Prof. Senior, Prof.

Powell, Prof. Wilson,—it is deeply lamented that even the acknowledged proficiency of such men fails to command the attendance of a class. The very fact that these men are eminent in their attainments, but totally useless at Oxford, proves everything that I have desired to prove of the necessity of a searching inquiry into the system pursued at the University. They themselves no less deeply lament the false position in which the present system pursued by the colleges places them.—I complain, also, that under the existing system, numbers of other learned Professors either actually give no lectures at all, or give what are designated at the Universities "Wall Lectures"—that is, lectures at which the walls and benches form the most numerous part of the auditory.

THE BRITISH MUSEUM CATALOGUE.

It would be paying a bad compliment to the readers of the *Athenæum* to suppose it necessary to make a formal reply to Mr. Fergusson's letter, in your last [see *ante*, p. 158]. No man, it is said, can be written down except by himself,—and certainly no observations of mine could have done so much damage to Mr. Fergusson as his own defence. He may claim at least the merit of surprising, if not of convincing, his antagonist.—I had pointed out, among other things, the futility of one of his charges against the Museum, which was founded on a book's being catalogued, according to him, "under the title of 'Maximis' because it was dedicated to Prince Massimi in Latin;"—and showed that it was dedicated to the Pope by Prince Massimi himself. I supposed, of course, at the time, that Mr. Fergusson could not have read, or could not have understood, the dedication he referred to. But what is his own statement on the subject?—"I was also wrong in saying that the book was dedicated to, and not *by*, Prince Massimi—an inadvertence which I ought not to have fallen into, as I *had* read the dedication, and was aware of the fact." Most of his other statements are abandoned in a similar manner, and he goes on coolly to argue that the local reputation of his assertions, confirmed by his own confession, leaves the matter just where it was.

One of the points, however, on which he does not relinquish his position is, his old subject of panegyric, the excellence of booksellers' catalogues. It was in vain that I pointed out that in one of them 'Valentine and Orson' was entered under Romance,—and Beaumont and Fletcher's 'Philaster' under Plays:—Mr. Fergusson is still positive that the books are "easily recognized and found,"—though by what process he does not favour us by explaining. It is only in the new Museum Catalogue that such books are undiscoverable; owing, I presume, to the ninety-one rules requiring that the one should be catalogued under Valentine and the other under Beaumont and Fletcher. Mr. Fergusson also informs us that he never "heard any complaint" of the old Museum Catalogue, or of that of the King's Library,—of which it has been my own experience to hear complaints almost every day for some years past. The difference, indeed, between the fate of catalogues appears to be, not that some are censured and others are not, but that some are censured with reason and others without.

On one point Mr. Fergusson disputes my statements;—and this I will mention as briefly as possible. Mr. Fergusson said, in his pamphlet, that a book which he called Byers's 'Tarquinian Sepulchres' was entered in the Museum Catalogue under the name of Howard,—which he represented as a flagrant absurdity. I pointed out that the book was entered under the head of 'Tarquinia,' and that a cross-reference was given from the name of Byres, correctly spelt. Mr. Fergusson now drops his assertion that the main entry is Howard, and affirms that it is 'Tarquiniū Hypogœi.' I repeat that it is Tarquinia,—as any visitor of the Museum Reading-room may easily ascertain for himself. The word 'Hypogœi' is merely the first of the title which follows the heading.—Again, he asserts that there was no cross-reference in the Catalogue from Byres at the time when he wrote. He wrote last year:—the cross-reference from Byres, I have been told at the Museum by those who are certain to know, is in the handwriting of a person who has left the establishment for years. I supposed,—and still suppose,—that Mr. Fergusson looked for it under the erroneous

spelling of Byers, which would account for his failing to find it.

This, as I said, is the only instance in which Mr. Fergusson disputes my statements; and yet at the very moment when he is driven to acknowledge over and over how entirely he has been in the wrong, he talks vaguely of distortion, garbling, misrepresentation, personality, and want of temper,—and seems to wish to assume the air of injured innocence. As usual, in these complaints he is far from consistent. In one paragraph he says, that “the columns of the *Athenæum* and other literary papers of the metropolises have long teemed with complaints” on the Catalogue; but that, “as far as his reading extends,” my letter in your number for the 2nd of February “is the first defence that has appeared.” Within twenty lines of this he writes thus:—“If any one dares to complain” of the Catalogue, “some one is employed to attack and misrepresent him, as ‘W.’ does me.” An assertion so thoroughly gratuitous as this last has a bad eminence even among those by which it is surrounded,—and even Mr. Fergusson, when his temper has cooled, will, I am confident, be ashamed of having made it.

Yours, &c. W.

OUR WEEKLY GOSSIP.

A special general meeting of the members of the Society of Arts was held in the Great Room of the Society's House, in the Adelphi, on Friday in last week,—for the purpose of ascertaining and considering the position of the Society of Arts with respect to the Industrial Exhibition proposed to be held in the year 1851. Mr. Scott Russell, the Secretary to the Society and to the Royal Commission, at the request of the chairman, gave a detailed report of all the preliminary proceedings which had conducted this project from its earliest conception to the day when it took substantive form before the public; and Mr. Wentworth Dilke, as a member of the Executive Committee, brought down the narrative of its operations to the present time. The registered names of the promoters of the undertaking already amount to 6,000—which include upwards of fifty noblemen, and nearly one hundred and fifty members of Parliament.—Our readers have been made so fully acquainted with all the leading particulars of this great movement, that there is nothing else of novelty in these statements to report to them;—excepting the fact that the Executive Committee, after doing the work of establishment under circumstances of peculiar difficulty, have placed their functions at the disposal of the Royal Commission appointed to preside over the organization which they have procured. The motives by which they have been actuated towards taking this step will be best expressed in the terms of their own resolution.

"That the members of the Executive Committee are of opinion, that the dissolution by the Royal Commission of the contract which they had been appointed for the purpose of carrying out, has changed the nature of their functions, and even superseded many of them. They are of opinion, therefore, that it is desirable that the Royal Commission should be left at free to select the best organization for carrying their intentions into effect as if the Executive Committee never been appointed. They feel, therefore, that they should not be asked to accept of a responsibility of witnessing the perfect success of the Exhibition, if they did not come forward to express their entire readiness at once to place their position in the hands of His Royal Highness the Prince Albert and the Royal Commissioners."

This step was taken on the 30th of last month.

After the above was written, the *Gazette* of last night reached us:—containing the announcements, that Mr. Robert Stephenson, a member of the Executive Committee, has been appointed one of Her Majesty's Commissioners for the promotion of the intended Exhibition of the Works of Industry of all Nations; and that Lieutenant-Colonel William Reid, of the Royal Engineers, is nominated one of the Executive Committee in his room—and to be Chairman of the said Executive Committee.

Active measures have been taken by the Admiralty to render the search for Sir John Franklin on the eastern side of Melville Island as complete as possible. Two sailing ships and two small steamers will be fitted out at Woolwich, and will be despatched from England at least a month earlier than the last Expedition under Sir James Ross. Independently of these, Capt. Penny, who commanded the *Advice*, a whaler when she went in search of the missing ships, has received instructions from the Admiralty to fit

out two vessels at Aberdeen, which are to be placed under his command,—and he will be particularly charged with the examination of Wellington Channel. The Expedition from Woolwich will be commanded by Capt. Austen; who acted as first lieutenant of the *Fury* in Parry's third voyage in 1824 for the discovery of a North-West Passage,—on which occasion, it will be remembered, that vessel was wrecked. Capt. Penny will be accompanied by Mr. M'Cormack, who has paid considerable attention to the subject of boat expeditions. The appointments to the ships generally have not yet been made. On no occasion, however, have there been so many volunteers; and many of those now volunteering are officers of great zeal and experience.

In the House of Commons, Mr. Ewart obtained leave, on Thursday last, to bring in a bill, founded on the Report of his Committee of last year, for enabling Town Councils to establish Public Libraries and Museums. The Bill proposes to extend the provisions of the Museum Act from towns having not less than 10,000 inhabitants to all municipal boroughs without limit of population; and to authorize Town Councils to levy a small rate, not exceeding a halfpenny in the pound, for the object in question—to purchase lands and erect buildings for the purpose; and to vest the property in the Town Councils for ever—and to secure to the public gratuitous admission to both libraries and museums. Later in the evening, on the motion of the same member, the Committee on Public Libraries was re-appointed.

Mr. Heywood's motion in the House of Commons for an address to Her Majesty praying for the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the Universities and Colleges of Oxford, Cambridge and Dublin, stands for the 19th instant. We refer him and our readers to our columns of this day, and the continuation of those of the 19th of last month, for some materials, furnished by a correspondent, which may help his argument and their interest in it.

Mr. Shepherd, the "Messenger Balloon" project liberated five balloons—such as are furnished to Arctic ships—on Wednesday last, from the Admiralty,—carrying between two and three thousand messages. All the balloons ascended well; and did not—as did those previously despatched—descend near London. They are probably now, with the high wind which has been blowing, scattered over the north of Europe.—The matches burn for sixty hours.

The Committee for promoting the establishment of Baths and Washhouses for the labouring classes has just issued a very useful publication, as the result of its experience. This is, *Suggestions for building and fitting up Parochial or Borough establishments*; with detailed calculations of the working expenses and earnings of such establishments.

The Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm has opened a subscription for a monument to be erected to the memory of the illustrious chemist, Berzelius. The King has subscribed 12,000 rixdollars, upwards of 1,100*l*.—From the same capital we learn that the King has charged M. Lindshagen, Doctor in Philosophy at the University of Upsal, and M. Kloumann, Lieutenant in the Royal Corps of Norwegian Engineers, to continue this year as far as the North Cape the measurement of the meridian—already executed from Småel, in Bessarabia, to Torneo, in Finland.

Our readers will have perceived in our advertising columns of last week the prospectus of a new Institution for scientific exhibition, and for promoting discoveries in arts and manufactures,—which is supported by a powerful list of patrons, and sanctioned by a royal charter. This institution may be considered as in some measure ancillary to the great Industrial Exhibition of next year,—and originates in the same spreading spirit to which that monster enterprise owes its birth. To the modern genius of inquiry it is intended to present a permanent place of varied scientific recreation; and it offers itself also as a parent to the numerous mechanics' and other scientific institutions throughout the country which have been struggling unsuccessfully against the difficulties incident to their isolated positions and divided means. It has been found that the funds of such Societies are rarely sufficient to enable them to procure the apparatus and appurtenances proper for the illustration of their lectures. Besides, therefore, supplying to the London public daily demonstrations of the various manufac-

training processes, it is proposed by the new institution to form a large collection of apparatus suitable to the illustration of lectures in every branch of natural and experimental science, and to lend out any portion of it on hire, on very moderate terms. This founding of resources and centralizing of means is a very important feature in the new institution, and one to which we have often called attention. The premises of the prospectus are very large. The institution is intended to combine the chief features of a public Exhibition and a private Society. The galleries are to be furnished with working models of machinery, and specimens of manufactures and of the Fine Arts; and it is announced to be one leading object of the undertaking, to obtain a complete series of the products of every staple manufacture in its successive processes, so as to present a history of each, and a Museum of all the Industrial Arts. The lectures are promised to be of first-class character, and competent assistants are, besides, to be continually engaged in the practical illustration of the various sciences. The laboratory is to be rendered practically efficient, and under such direction as to ensure the formation of a sound school of chemistry. Our readers will see, that the scheme is a vast one: but the names engaged are a guarantee for the earnestness and integrity of the intention. The whole design bears emphatically on it the mark of the present age, which has admitted all ranks to the knowledge-franchise, and before whose spirit the old entertainments that once fed the mental appetite of the people are all going out. Such a plan in the days of the intellectual Sursums and Gattos would have been a gigantic absurdity, but it is the natural expression of our age, in which Harlequin has no chance against the steam-engine, and Ariel is far out-travelled by the electric telegraph. The site secured for the Panopticon is central between all the varied interests that make up the sum of metropolitan civilization. It is in the neighbourhood of Exeter Hall, on a plot of ground commanding fronts in the Strand, Exeter Street, Southampton Street, and Tavistock Street. From the progress made, it is believed that the institution may be opened in twelve months.

BRITISH INSTITUTION. Pall Mall.—The GALLERY for the EXHIBITION and SALE of the WORKS of BRITISH ARTISTS is OPEN DAILY, from 10 to 5.—Admission, 5s. (Ladies, 2s. 6d.).—GEORGE NICOL, Secretary.

THE SILENCE—RE-OPENED AT THE EGYPTIAN HALL, PICCADILLY.—The new and splendid MOVING PANTOMIME of the SILENCE, showing all the stupendous Works of Antiquity on its knees, from Cairo the capital of Egypt to the Second Cataract in Egypt. Painted by Henry Warren and James Fahey from drawings made by Joseph Bonomi during many years' residence there. —Opening 5; Evening 8 o'clock.—Stalls 3s., Pit 2s., Gallery 1s.

THE WINTER EXHIBITION OF WATER-COLOUR DRAWINGS AND SKETCHES IN OILS, comprising Works by the most eminent living Artists, is OPEN from Ten till Dusk daily. Admission (including Catalogue), 1s. —Season Ticket, 5s. —The Exhibition is altogether one which will repay the attention of visitors.—*Athenæum*, Jan. 5.
178, Regent Street. J. L. GRUNDY, Manager.

ROYAL POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTION.
SIR HENRY R. BISHOP'S LECTURES ON MUSIC will take place on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday Evenings at 8 o'clock, and on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday at Three o'clock daily. Admission (including Catalogue), 1s. —Season Ticket, 5s. —Illustrations on ASTRONOMY, by Dr. Bachhöfer, on Wednesday and Friday at One o'clock.—Dr. Bachhöfer's LECTURE on the PHILOSOPHY of SCIENTIFIC RECREATION, on Monday and Wednesday at 8 o'clock.—By Mr. Ashley, on OIL: its History and Formation.—DISSOLVING VIEWS of LONDON in the SIXTEENTH CENTURY and AS IT NOW IS, with a Descriptive Lecture, also a SERIES of VIEWS of ROME.—Experiments with the DIVER and DIVING BELL.—The MACHINERY, MODELS, &c. EXPLAINED.—Admission, 1s.; School, half-price.

SOCIETIES

GEOLOGICAL.—Feb. 6.—Sir C. Lyell in the chair. —Lieut.-Col. J. A. Lloyd and W. Pengelly, Esq. were elected Fellows.—A paper was read, 'On the Igneous and Volcanic Rocks of the Papal States and the adjacent Parts of Italy,' by Sir R. I. Murchison, V.P. One of the chief objects of the author is to show that nearly all the so-called volcanic rocks of the Papal States—including those between Radiofani and Rome and in the Campagna—were accumulated under water, and did not issue from true sub-aerial volcanoes. The oldest of the tephritic basalts or lavas have penetrated and overflowed the tertiary marine marls and sands of the sub-Apennine age; and if molities were substituted for their prevailing simple mineral leucite, they could not be distinguished from many British trap rocks. The tuffs, peperini and puzosolone, which succeed, also afford unquestionable evidences of having been formed under waters, pro-

bably for the most part brackish or fresh, since no marine shells occur in them; and from the porous and light character of many of them, it is presumed that the waters in which they were re-arranged were of slight depth. The so-called crater lakes of Bolseana, Baccano, Bracciano, &c., in and around the Colles Cimini, all come within this category,—in proof of which water-worn pebbles of Apennine limestone are associated with them. During all this condition of things, the Sabine and Volscian Hills of Apennine limestone (cretaceous) must have formed the coast of the waters,—Soracte being an island, in which volcanic materials, having been partially thrown up into the atmosphere, are supposed to have been recombined.

Old Travertine.—At or towards the close of the great volcanic epoch, enormous masses of travertine were accumulated,—which, as they repose upon volcanic tuffs, and contain nothing but remains of terrestrial plants and animals, indicate that they were formed in the lakes and marshes which prevailed shortly after the partial elevation and desiccation of the Campagna. Such is the broad tract of rocks around the Lake of Tatarus and the Solfatarra, out of which ancient Rome was in great measure built, and also the travertine of certain undulating hills between Ferentino and Val Montone, on the central road to Naples. The plateau of travertine on which ancient Tibur (Tivoli) was built must have been elaborated long anterior to the modern era,—for pebble beds of Apennine limestone are intercalated in it, and the whole stands out in a high bluff escarpment towards the Campagna, where no water-courses now descend from the Apennines. A very strong contrast is, therefore, drawn between those ancient travertines formed at the expense of the Apennine limestone when the great volcanic action of this region was in energy or dying away, and those feeble additions of travertine which have been made by the river Anio since the Temple of the Sibyl was built upon the old and ante-historical rock. The author here describes the effect of a great flood of the Anio in 1826, that carrying the cliffs of old travertine on which a church and thirty-six houses were situated, transported all the lighter materials down the falls. As on that occasion a raft of the church stuck fast in the Grotto of the Syren, and remaining there, is now becoming cemented into the hollow of the rock by the accretion of newly-formed travertine, so he thinks, that if found in after-ages, it might lead antiquarians and geologists to conclude that the great mass of superjacent and subjacent travertine had been formed after the building of Christian churches. The partial desiccation of the old cascades by the new cut and tunnel through the Apennine limestone has, it is stated, much detracted from the beauty of the scene.

Latian Volcanoes.—The only true terrestrial volcano which the author admits may have been in activity,—and this only in the very earliest portion of the modern period—is one which burst out in the centre of the Latian or Alban Hills, from the circular and crateriform cavity called Hannibal's Camp and the adjacent parasitic craters. The chief crater has a central cone (Monte di Vescovo), is surrounded by a brim of dejections of scoriaceous and volcanic materials, and exhibits *coulées* of basaltic and other lavas (including one called Sperone),—on the highest point of which (Monte Cavi), about 3,500 feet above the sea, stood the Temple of Jupiter Latiaris. It is, above all, in the broken-down sides of this crater and its parasites (towards Tusculum) that the author traces an analogy to the extinct sub-aerial volcanoes of Auvergne; but he believes that the fires burst forth when these Latian Hills had just emerged from beneath the waters, and when nearly all the Campagna was still submerged; for in the middle of the crater, in which Hannibal encamped, there is a lacustrine deposit in the shells of *Lymnaea* and *Planorbis*,—and therefore, for ages after its activity, this volcanic crater must have become a lake, which was desiccated before the time of historical records. In expressing the great obligations of science to Monsignore Medici Spada and Prof. Ponzi, of Rome, for the light they have thrown upon the mineral structure of the Latian volcanoes, Sir Roderick cannot assent to that part of their view by which the lakes of Albano and Nemi are also supposed to be craters formed in the atmosphere. Unacquainted with any-

thing resembling them in true atmospheric volcanoes, he regards the solid peperino, which flanks these and composes their cliffs, as having been formed under aqueous pressure. Nor can he, because the impressions of grassy vegetables have been found in some of this peperino, admit that it was a mud eruption which flowed upon land; since nothing is more common than that matted vegetable substances should be floated into waters adjacent to a coast, and there become imbedded in subaqueous dejections. Recent, then, as the eruption of the central volcano of the Latian hills is in the geological series, and linked on as it is to the historic era, the very high antiquity of that event as respects history is further proved by the fact, that certain minerals peculiar to that volcano and not occurring in the older rocks of the Papal States, have been found in the quaternary or post-pliocene marine deposits at Porto D'Anzo or Antium (25 miles distant from Monte Cavi) which have been raised up into land since the Mediterranean Sea was inhabited by its present animals.

Rocca Monfina.—This lofty tract in the kingdom of Naples, lying between Sessa and Teano, so remarkable in history as the seat of the ancient Aurunci, and so striking in its outlines from the grandeur of its crater (2½ miles in diameter), is referred by the author exclusively to a subaqueous origin, and is supposed to have been formed, like Graham Island or other submarine volcanoes, by ejections which, to a great extent, reaching the atmosphere, fell back into the waters and formed successive and surrounding scoriaceous layers. The great distinction between this crater and that of the Latian Hills is, that its centre is now occupied by a mountain of solid trachyte of very ancient appearance (between a porphyry and a greenstone), which it is contended could not have been formed under the atmosphere, but must have originated at considerable depth, and have been subsequently heaved up. On this point, indeed, the author begs to dissent from those writers who think that solid trachytes, including the domes of Auvergne, could ever have been formed under the mere pressure of the atmosphere; and in all cases where, as at Rocca Monfina, they have so risen as to plug up an ancient crater, whether subaqueous or subaerial, he argues that they must have thrown off a considerable mass of superincumbent materials. The trachytes of Ischia, for example, must all have been of pure submarine origin, since sea shells alternate with them to the height of upwards of 1,600 English feet.

In conclusion, Sir Roderick indicated to what extent his own observations tended to modify the extreme opinions of those who advocate the elevation-crater theory on the one hand, and those who would refer all dejections of quondam volcanic materials which dip away excentrically from a central dome or cavity, to the same mode of formation as that of existing volcanoes. He thinks, that the craters and valleys of elevation in the sedimentary rocks of the British Isles illustrate how craters of elevation, strictly so called, may have been produced; and explains how, in the instances of Woolhope and Dudley, the igneous matter has found vent on the edges of these deposits, whilst the repressed heat and intumescence accompanying its evolution have raised up their centres so as to produce the ellipses and circles in question. In like manner it is inferred, that wherever igneous dejections have been spread out by currents over very large areas in the bottoms of seas, and far removed from their sources of eruption, subsequent upheavals from beneath, whether accompanied by the outburst of fresh igneous matter or not, may have so arranged these former volcanic materials as to give them such a shape as will entitle them to the name of craters of elevation.

ROYAL INSTITUTION.—Feb. 8.—W. R. Hamilton, Esq., V.P., in the chair.—Professor Cowper 'On the Conway and Menai Tubular Bridges.' The Professor commenced by briefly distinguishing between the real tubular structure of Stephenson and certain foreign bridges from which, as has been alleged, that principle was taken. Thus, the wooden bridge at Schaffhausen, which was destroyed by the French in 1790, and which was supposed to have suggested the tubular form, is proved by a model

now in the museum of King's College to have been simply an arched bridge, having a roof as a shelter from rain. The same remark is equally applicable to a bridge at Wittengen and to wooden bridges in America, where the roadways are roofed. The Professor then read a brief notice of various proposals and estimates, by which it appeared that the attention of the Legislature had been directed to the urgent necessity of a safe transit over the Straits of Menai since the year 1783. The most elaborate report was furnished by the late Mr. Rennie, who supplied several designs and estimates for bridges, either of cast iron, or partly of cast iron and partly of stone. Prof. Cowper then proceeded to explain and to illustrate by models the principle of a bridge. He showed that the force exerted on the arch bridge is that of compression only—in the suspension bridge the force exerted is that of extension only; and that in the bow-and-string bridge both extension and compression are exerted. It was shown that the same forces are also exerted on the girder,—viz., extension on the under and compression on the upper side. This was demonstrated by the following experiment:

—Wood, tin plate, and tin tubes were successively inserted in a space of about four inches, purposely cut for that purpose in the middle of a girder, where it was also jointed. When the tin plate was inserted in the upper side, it bent under the pressure of a few pounds; but when rolled up into a tube it supported more than 100 lb. Again, when the same piece of tin plate was fixed to the under side of the girder, where the force of extension was called into action, it would have required several hundred-weights to have torn it asunder. Mr. E. Hodgkinson's experiments on the best form of section for cast-iron girders were then adverted to. Small experimental girders, devised by that gentleman, were shown. They resemble the letter T. It was stated that the strength of this girder, when the flat side was uppermost, was to its strength when inverted, as 1 to 3½. Other forms of section showed that the distribution of the same quantity of material would give differences in strength varying as 5½, 11, 15, 19. It was then explained how wrought-iron tubes had been employed by Locke, Brunel, Fox, and Henderson in the bow-and-string bridges, and by Fairbairn in girders. The insufficiency of ordinary suspension bridges to support railway trains was adverted to; and Mr. Cowper explained a perfectly novel and highly scientific design of a railway suspension bridge, the invention of his son, Mr. E. A. Cowper. This bridge, from the principle of its construction, is called "The inverted arch bridge."

An arch of an ordinary cast-iron bridge (like the Southwark Bridge) is secure in whatever position the load is placed, because the lines of thrust are contained within the arch of plates. Now, imagine a similar arch of wrought-iron plates to be inverted, and a roadway hung to it, then, wherever the load may be placed, the lines of strain will also be contained within the inverted arch of plates, and consequently there will be no deflection of the road. This very original invention is worthy the attention of engineers. Prof. Cowper then explained Mr. Stephenson's original proposal to build, without interrupting the navigation by scaffolding, a bridge of two cast-iron arches, the centre pier being placed on the Britannia rock. It was shown by a model how two half arches could be built on the opposite sides of a pier, each being tied to, and so balancing, the corresponding voussoir on the other side. Other conditions imposed by the Admiralty, but incompatible with the plan of the railway, induced Mr. Stephenson to adopt the plan of a vast tube. A section, made of rope, comprising the full size of the tube, was suspended from the ceiling of the theatre of the Institution: it was 15 feet wide and 30 feet high; and Prof. Cowper stated the length to be 460 feet (about twice the height of the Monument). After many experiments on cylindrical, elliptical, and other forms, Mr. Fairbairn adopted that of a rectangular tube, with rectangular cells at the top. Prof. Cowper illustrated, by experiment, the necessity of stiffness at the top of the tube, and demonstrated that this was obtained by the cellular form. The Menai tube was made with wrought-iron plates varying from ¾ to 1 of an inch in thickness, firmly rivetted together with T or J iron at the joints. The rectangular cells at the upper side are eight in number, and are 1 foot

9 inches square; and there are six similar rectangular cells at the bottom of the tube. The method of putting the tube together, and of raising it by hydraulic presses, was explained and exhibited by a model. The bridge consists of two lines of tube, extending over two centre spans of 460 feet each, and two smaller spans of 230 feet each. These tubes, when in their places, were joined together by intermediate tubes of about 50 feet over the piers; thus, not only making the length of one entire tube to amount to 1,524 feet, but by the junction adding considerably to the strength. The weight of the tubes is about 10,570 tons. The Conway tubular bridge has been in use for some time, and it is found that an ordinary train deflects the tube about ¼ of an inch; that hot sunshine causes the heated side to bow out about 1 inch; that the strongest wind deflects the tube about 1 inch. It is intended to put sliding stays between the up-train and the down-train tubes of the Britannia Bridge, so that they will support each other against the wind. The difference of temperature between summer and winter will expand the entire Britannia Bridge about 12 inches: this is provided for by fixing the middle of the tube on the Britannia pier, and allowing the ends to rest on forty-eight rollers, about 6 inches diameter in the abutments; the rails on those parts being allowed to slide by each other.—On the table were the works of Fairbairn and Dempsey; some plates of the tubular bridge by Mr. E. Clark, the resident engineer; and two models of the Conway and Britannia Bridges.

MEETINGS FOR THE ENSUING WEEK.

- Mox. Pathological, half-past 7.—Meeting of Council.
 — Statistical, 8.
 — Chemical, 8.
 — British Architects, 8.
 Tues. Civil Engineers, 6.—Mr. Richard Turner, 'Description of the Iron Roof over the Railway Station, Lime Street, Liverpool.'
 — Linnean, 8.
 — Horticultural, 8.
 Thurs. Royal, half-past 5.
 — Antiquaries, 8.
 Fri. Philological, 8.
 Royal Institution, half-past 8.—Mr. Carmichael 'On the Manufactures from the Cocoa-Nut.'

FINE ARTS

BRITISH INSTITUTION.

Mr. Gilbert's combination of characters from *The Plays of Shakespeare* claims commendation more from the individual presentments of the leading personages of the principal dramas of the immortal bard than for any successful pictorial composition as a whole. The idea is not a new one. The attempt has been more than once made,—and with but partial success: and this will not be wondered at when the powerful creations of distinct characters, both tragic and comic, are remembered. The deficiency of harmony in the bringing together of such varieties cannot be compensated for by the greatest nicety of personification,—neither will any amount of technical excellence make amends for want of rationality of plan, of unity, or of dramatic development of design. *A Troop of Dragoons* (142) represents some cavalry soldiers under arms during a storm,—conveyed in a solemn and grave effect. *Aladdin's Present to the Sultan* (203) is a good study of oriental character.—There is sober sadness in Mr. H. W. Phillips's *Pilgrim*, from 'All's Well that Ends Well' (107):—a very solid and well-painted head.

Mr. Frederick Tayler, whose successes as a painter in water colours we have so often recorded, exhibits himself in a new material,—and with like powers. There are the same breadth of style and fluency of touch as is usual with him in *Harvest Time* (97) and *Gipsy Trampers* (120):—giving good presage that this artist will make himself no less conspicuous with the new means which he has adopted than he has done with his former medium.

Amongst Mr. A. Johnston's works, the preference will be given to No. 434—a scene of Scottish courtship illustrative of some anonymous lines:—whose effect is, however, too strong for open air truth. In *The Novice* (138), a powerfully painted single figure is made to look gigantic by the disproportioned architectural details of background and indifferent perspective.—One of the very carefully drawn little studies from the nude form by Mrs. Frost, entitled *Musidora* (143)—and a pretty study of infantine character, *The Gleaner's Child* (147), by Mrs. Carpenter—are the only two commendable pictures of

human form in the North Room remaining to be noticed.

Proceeding onwards, Mr. A. J. Woolmer's *Spruce* (161) is another of his poetical touches, abounding in fancy, but wanting in those traits of individual truth which strengthen the highest conceptions of the ideal,—and have never been disdained in the loftiest creations of a Dante or of a Milton. Mr. Woolmer would do well to be more attentive to particular truth,—and to take care that haste does not become with him habit.

Mr. Brocky is better known through the medium of his very pleasant drawings of character in chalks than on the walls of our Exhibition-rooms;—but he has here in two instances proved how well he can apply those studies of colour from old masters which his sojournings in some of the principal galleries of the Continent have given him the opportunity of making. *A Dutch Madonna* (179) gives a group of domestic felicity. *A Bacchante* (300) is of a much higher order of colour in the more difficult department of the representation of the nude female form. Mr. Brocky has in the last succeeded in the execution of passages of very beautiful colour,—and in a degree of relief which proves that he has not relied on memory or convention for the realization of his theme, but has derived from well-selected nature the source of his present inspiration. An artist who shows so much power for historic and poetic treatment will, it is to be hoped, not dissipate his time by occupation on the lower class of the more objective truths of the Dutch and Flemish schools.

Mr. J. Calcott Horsley's completion of *Lucas reproving his Dog* (205)—a picture left unfinished by the late Sir A. W. Calcott—proves one of two things: either how much more successful he can be when acting under the stimulus of competition with matured excellence, or how much he has improved. His present success will make his future works the objects of increased attention and scrutiny.

The Desert Steed (214), by C. Tschaggeny,—representing one of those halts which we have been made familiar by many travellers—has some good painting, but lacks the arid hue and hot atmosphere of the Desert. The truth of tone so observable in the oriental scenes of David Roberts is here missed.

A very excellent little study of a child, by Mr. Woolnoth, must not be overlooked:—"*Naughty Pussy! she has killed poor Robin*" (214). It has much feeling and is delicately painted.—Mr. R. M'Innes's *Detaining a Customer* (252) is a humorous picture of domestic life.—Mr. A. Fraser's *Scotch Shepherd saying Grace* (261)—the goodman reverentially doffing his bonnet before his repeat, with becoming gesture—is better than the same artist's scene from the 'Heart of Mid-Lothian,'—*Jeanie Deans and the Laird of Dumbiedykes* (279):—although in the latter he has exhibited much manipulative excellence.—*Studying Navigation* (261) is a little picture by Mr. H. Dawson, not without merit.

The Myrrha (311) of Mr. H. O'Neill will hardly be accepted as a just representation of what the artist can do. It is, at the same time, a recurrence to a type of form which having been repeated in other of the artist's works is likely to subject him to the imputation of mannerism.

In *Infant Baptism* (313), by Mr. G. E. Hicks, the painter, with some amount of ability, has given two compositions of this ceremonial: one an illustration of the year 110, from Origen,—the other of the year 626. They are more remarkable for attention to archæologic particular than for pictorial accomplishment.

Mr. J. D. Wingfield's *Rubbing off the Rust* (327)—a man polishing his armour—is one of those attempts at the delineation of the human form which is less in his way than a work like his *Interior—Royal Chapel, Hampton Court* (248). This last, however, will hardly be accepted as so successful an achievement as his scenes in the Duke of Sutherland's Gallery or the exteriors of Hampton Court of former years. *A Peep in the Palace of William the Third* (56) and *The Falconer* (452) are pictures by the same hand.—*An Interior of a Cottage, Kent* (353) is a very truthful little work by Mr. G. Hardy.—A very affected little composition is *The Fairy Ring* (351), by Mr. H. Biefeld,—after the manner of Huskisson and other imitators of the style of Macie,

who led the way originally in such matters.—There is a gem by Miss E. Goodall, *Stepping Stones in Wales* (380), on the Secretary's screen.

Mr. U. C. Selous's picture, *The First Impression* (388), records an incident with which we are not acquainted. He tells us of *Guttenberg showing to his wife his first experiment in printing from movable types; supposed to have been the Bible, printed in 1450-60*. The picture is indefinite in interest and in action. Although *The Missal* (393), by Mr. J. Stephanoff records no positive incident, there is in it a sense of picturesque combination. There is more of severity, and there is high intention in *Blind Bartimeus restored to sight* (406), by Mr. W. J. Grant: evidently the work of a young and timid hand,—containing some excellent parts, but wanting in depth and richness of colour.

Mr. J. Harwood betrays some good intentions in *Othello relating his Adventures* (450);—but he has not identified his subject with the locality, or realized the dignified aspect of such personages as he seeks to represent. Mr. S. West has been more attentive to accessory particular in *Quentin Durward's First Interview with the Countess of Cregey* (477). He succeeds, however, still better where he has a wider field for chromatic display,—as in his *Disgrace of Wexley*, exhibited some years since. The character of the King is there in accordance with history and portraiture:—and there are other points of equal truth.

Among the painters of animals, Mr. Sydney Cooper bears away the palm. *A Group on a Common* (1) is a much more powerfully painted assemblage of sheep and donkey, more impasted and more brilliant, than is his wont. *A Group in the Meadows* (88) is excellently composed: and *Watering Cattle*—*Sunset* (430) is *Both*-like in sentiment, but exceptionable to our taste as being somewhat hot and foxy in the general hue.

Mr. J. F. Herring here shows himself more independent in practice than usual. He has relied on his own resources,—and the result is greater originality of style. In his principal work, *A Farm Yard* (3), the animals are injured in their force by the heaviness of the back-ground,—which, being painted up too minutely, and with approximating tints, divides attention with them, and injures an otherwise able performance. *A Study of Kids* wants variety of colour: there is too great a prevalence of the same negative hue. A few points of more positive colour in the accessories would have prevented this monotony. There are more breadth and power in *Domestic Ducks* (81). These pictures are all, however, eloquent of conscientious intention,—and reveal Mr. Herring's observation and mastery of pencil.

Mr. R. Ansell has not been so fortunate either in his choice of subjects or in his treatment. His principal work here, *The Regretted Companion* (40)—an old man keeping watch over the companion of his toils, his dead donkey,—required no ordinary powers to invest its subject with genuine pathos. Sterne made much of such a subject,—but it is one which if not handled in a masterly way is likely to provoke a smile. Nor does Mr. Ansell by the graces of execution or the power of art win our consent to the imitative features of his work. We remember many better things from his hands.—*South Downs* (123) will scarcely be more popular,—although aided in the landscape portions by the valuable co-operation of Mr. Creswick.

A promising scion of the house whose name he bears Mr. G. Landseer proves himself to be in a little picture, *A Study from Nature* (455). It represents a group of donkeys. Careful training is observable in the drawing and making up of the work. There is an entire absence of imitation or affectation of the style of his distinguished relative, while there is a simple and honest truthfulness in the rendering of Nature.—The remaining picture of animals to be noticed is that by Mr. T. Jones Barker, *The Review* (464). It represents horses,—horses on which we presume the artist intended it to be understood that the Queen and her Consort are mounted. As a picture of a review, there is want of military disposition in the elements of the piece,—and as a picture of the horse, we have seen many better representations of the creature from the same hand.

No less than eight examples of Fruit and Still-life

—each bearing testimony to the supremacy of the artist in this line—are from the pencil of Mr. Lance. The most conspicuous is *The Drake, with the Brown Jug, &c.* (429), one of the best of Mr. Lance's elaborations. *Rich and Rare* (21), a jewelled cup and a group of peaches, is as faithful and admirable as *The Jewels and the Gem* (102). The rose, carnation and convolvulus in the latter, however, prove that Mr. Lance yet wants the delicacy of touch and lightness of hand so essential to the true delineation of flowers.—*Nature and Art* (368) are two separate works: one a casket of jewels,—the other luscious fruit. *Spanish Produce* (403) is a deep-toned combination of Iberian fruit. The most powerful of these works for general effect and breadth of light and shade is *Remnants* (427):—probably one of Mr. Lance's most successful efforts in the attainment of these very desirable qualities.

In no spirit of imitation, but in that of honest emulation.—Mr. M. P. Jackson's *Still-Life* (431) testifies to his admiration of Mr. Lance. The latter must look well to his laurels if Mr. Jackson shall realize the promise which he has here given.

We shall conclude our present notice by observing on some singular renderings of the human form "divine":—reserving the landscapes and sea views for next week.

There are first to be noticed two scriptural pictures, with portions of the figure of a size larger than nature. Mr. J. Franklin in *The Covenant of Judas* (92), and Mr. W. Bowness in *Samuel and Eli* (255), show more ambition than ability,—display a want of that acquaintance with the best treatments by the old masters, of their respective subjects, which should have either deterred them from grappling with such difficulties or better prepared them for the conflict. Mr. T. Brook's *Highland Gleaner* (17) is better fitted for a Greek Street picture-dealer's shop than for these walls. It is poor and common.—Mr. E. U. Eddis's *Youthful Fortune-Telling* (46) is unworthy of his better talents: and his *Girl with Water-cresses* (76), although better, wants truth and careful finish. *Venus and Cupid* (124), by Mr. G. G. Bullock, is one of the poorest works, full of pretension, ever shown in these rooms:—so is *Minna Troil* (135), by Mr. T. M. Joy.—*The Luna* (232) of Mr. J. G. Naish is no very successful imitation of Mr. Frost:—nor has Mr. K. Buckner done himself any justice in his *Shepherd Boy* (56). The rusticities of the portrait painters, unlike those of Sir Joshua Reynolds, savour always too strongly of the sitter's chair and the darkened room,—instead of suggesting the mossy bank and the blue vault of heaven.—Mr. T. F. Dicksee in his picture of *Lady Macbeth* (279) has taken such revenge as lay in his power for the sins of that very questionable lady.—*The Rival's Wedding* (292), by Mr. H. M. Anthony, shows improvement,—though there is yet too much of singularity to please those who delight in the modesty of nature.—*Don Quixote and Sancho Panza in Pedro's Hut* (301) is another of those combinations in which grimace is mistaken for character.—Of a most ambitious order is the large picture by Mr. T. M. Joy, *The Interview between James the Fourth and the Celebrated Outlaw Murray, on Permans-core, on the Banks of the Yarrow* (425). They who are conversant with the requirements necessary for the proper representation of such a subject need no hint as to the extent of Mr. Joy's temerity and qualification:—we will therefore spare ourselves any analysis of his demerits.—*Milton reading to Cromwell the 'Defensio Regis' of Salmasius* (443), by Mr. H. Murray, has some very good colour. The story is, however, not well told,—and the characters are not successful.—With the mere mention of Mr. A. T. Derby's picture of *Varney's Reception at Cumnor Place, with Commands from Kenilworth* (456), we must close.

FINE-ART GOSSIP.—Mr. Burford has very judiciously selected for his new Panorama scenes in the Arctic regions:—possessing, as these do, at this moment the elements of more than ordinary interest. The picture has been divided into two distinct subjects: one representing the late Expedition under Sir James Ross, in Glacier Harbour, on the coast of Greenland, in the month of July, making its way through lanes of water in the ice, and surrounded by enormous icebergs, assuming the most fantastic shapes.—The other shows the ships *Enterprise*

and *Investigator* in their winter quarters in Port Leopold, firmly imbedded in ice. The sky is brilliantly illuminated by the aurora borealis; and the moon, which shines with peculiar brightness, presents one of those remarkable phenomena so frequently seen in polar regions.—Mr. Burford, who has been assisted by Mr. Selous, has succeeded in imparting the most happy aerial perspective to both scenes; which, combined with careful painting, renders the panorama one of the most successful that we have seen. It is due to Lieut. Browne of H.M.S. *Enterprise* to state that the panorama has been painted from his drawings made on the spot. We have seen these drawings; and we bear willing testimony to the accuracy with which Mr. Burford has rendered them in his panorama.

We have before us the first of a host of candidates which are likely, we presume, to be bidders for the honours that will belong to the edifice adopted for the great Industrial Exhibition next year. A small plan and an isometric view of a system of galleries has reached us, on a sheet of paper which bears no author's name. The plan of the whole is a circle; and at the heart is a circular central hall, 130 ft. in diameter,—radiating from which are eight corridors, each 300 ft. by 50 ft.—of proportionate height,—having at their several outer extremities, entrances, with attendants' rooms. These communicate right and left, according to the accompanying description, with eight corridors, each 200 ft. by 30 ft.—inclosing eight large covered courts, all receiving their light from above,—thus providing a large mass of wall. The central hall is surmounted by a dome; and this part of the building is intended for models that require height,—being 60 ft. high to the springing of the dome. The clerestory windows around its sides are intended to receive specimens of stained glass. The other parts of the building are arbitrarily, but not necessarily, appropriated, according to the views of the designer:—and the plan allows of extension to any scale.—It would not, however, suit the space at present supposed to be the probable site of the intended Exhibition.

Last week, a meeting was held in Edinburgh, to consider the propriety of erecting a monument to the memory of the late Lord Jeffrey. A series of resolutions were moved and carried, tending to the erection of an architectural monument in Edinburgh,—and for appointing committees in that city and in London for carrying out the object.

In the same city, after a long struggle with the authorities, an architectural document of great value in the eyes of those who look back with pride on the religious history of Scotland, is finally preserved, by means of a public subscription,—which, however, we believe, has not reached the amount that the committee of conservation desire for all the purposes which they have in view. The house of John Knox, which stood in the way of certain contemplated embellishments of the city,—and was therefore doomed to demolition, like any other material thing, before the law of progress,—has, in a spirit which strikes one curiously, in connexion with the particular object, as at once anti-reform and somewhat idolatrous, been snatched from the common doom, to be erected into a monument in honour of the great Reformer:—a Knox shrine. The house is to have a custodian, paid for showing the relic to the public; and, as we understand the matter, it is intended, with that thrift which makes an unflinching qualification of Scottish enthusiasm, that a portion of the house shall subserve certain purposes of general archaeology,—the Reformer's study and the room in which he died being more particularly held sacred to his memory.

The senior Society of Painters in Water Colours held on Monday last their annual meeting for the election of Associates; and chose Miss Rayner, Mr. Paul Naffel, a native of Guernsey, and Herr Karl Haghe, a Prussian. A correspondent, who was himself a candidate, Mr. Niemann, admitting the undoubted worth of the candidates elected, is yet desirous that we should put on record, *quantum valeant*, his objections to the election,—and to certain other proceedings of the Society. We give the complaint as his own.—Among the candidates, he says, were English artists of equal talent. He was a candidate himself—"competing," he says, "on this second occasion on the nomination of Mr. George Catter

mole, and in consequence of having been officially invited to do so at the last election, when my name came before the Society. Now, my reason for troubling you with this apparently personal affair is, to inquire whether the English school of water-colour painters,—the only school in which we really, as a nation, excel,—requires strengthening by the election of Associates from among foreigners?—who in a little time will doubtless succeed to full honours, and then, as is the established rule in this Society,—hang each of them from twenty to fifty drawings, sold, unsold, dead stock, lessons to pupils, &c.—to the effectual and utter exclusion of rising young men. This Society is an English Society, not an open field of competition for all nations. It continually pleads its want of room: why then do not its President and other old members set the laudable example of hanging a few drawings less each year, and thus make room for deserving works? Or, why do they not, for their own honour, hang only such works as they have for sale—or as have been recently sold to the true patrons of Art—instead of allowing dealers to make a popular shop of their Gallery, which is every year the case?—Our correspondent says, somewhat inconsistently, that he desires to guard himself against being “supposed to object to the election of these gentlemen on account of their being foreigners.”—“I will simply state,” he adds, “that, as the principal or working trustee of the Hyde Park Exhibition, and lessee of the new Galleries now building in Langham Place for that Society, I have myself recently originated and am carrying out a scheme for giving to foreign artists the opportunity of exhibiting their works from year to year by the side of our own, in the same Galleries, and at the same time. It is not, therefore, any the slightest objection to them as foreigners; but simply a conviction, that although entitled to exhibit with us, they are not entitled to carry off those limited honours and places which in English Societies are the English artist’s by right,—or at any rate not until the claims of Englishmen have been fully examined and found wanting.”—We put the case as our correspondent states it:—merely observing, for the present, that it assumes equality of talent on the part of the candidates disappointed—which we presume is intended to be disputed by the election itself; and that it is somewhat opposed to that spirit of free competition which is more and more the spreading sentiment of the day.

A correspondent of the *Daily News* announces a new and interesting discovery which the excavations making in and about Rome have just brought to light. In the Villa Doria at Albano a fine statue of a Centaur has been discovered, after lying buried for ages in the ground. “It is,” says the writer, “of a pure style of execution, and in good preservation. The human part of the monster is of *rosso antico*, whilst the equine half is of grey marble, or *biggio antico*.”—In other respects, says the same writer, the Fine Arts feel the languid influence of Rome’s present political situation. There are two public Exhibitions:—one of the productions of German painters, at the Palazzo Simonetti, which contains some good pictures by Töerner and Werner,—the other at the Piazza del Popolo, of which he tells a significant story. “M. Albuzzi—a very clever artist, and a pupil of Hauser—had some difficulty in getting one of his pictures admitted here, because it smacked too much of patriotism. It represented a young girl of Carthage cutting off and contributing her splendid black tresses amidst the offerings of gold and jewels made by richer citizens for the defence of their country against the arms of Scipio. He was obliged to quote the passage from Livy and place it under his picture in order to show that it was really an ancient and not a modern episode.”

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA

ST. MARTIN’S HALL.—Following what may be described as a most festive and genial social inauguration, which took place on Thursday week.—St. Martin’s Hall in its incomplete state was opened on Monday last, with high musical ceremony. When we describe the room as incomplete, it is not merely in point of cornices not put up, a gallery which is to come, &c. &c.—but as lacking yet a third of its

length. Meanwhile, we are not too sanguine in promising to the Londoner a more picturesque and effective music-room than any he has yet possessed,—judging from the portion already thrown open, in its unfinished and semi-decorated state. The old English wooden roof, with its arrangement of beams and pannels, proves to be most effective in point of sonority. More ripe the choruses could not sound,—more delicately and distinctly the *solo* voices could not be delivered, than they do and are in St. Martin’s Hall. The orchestra appears to be judiciously contrived and arranged; the amount of light is sufficient without being either glaring or distracting to the eye. In short, leaving details for another day, we must state that the good performances of Monday last were placed in a most attractive frame-work. To follow one by one the items of the programme of this interesting Concert is impossible. The first act was sacred, the second secular. In the former, the features were the ‘Lauda Sion’ of Mendelssohn, and the new Psalm by Mr. H. Leslie, reviewed in the *Athenæum* [p. 137] on the occasion of its publication. Rarely has a young English composer been so advantageously introduced to the public: and the hearing yet more than the reading of Mr. Leslie’s Psalm satisfies us that he needs only exercise himself in writing to take a high place among English composers. The defects of his work,—an occasional confusion, or else meagreness, in its orchestral effects, and a crudity in some of its vocal modulations,—are such as would be easily made to disappear before further practice of hand. This ought to bring largeness, ease, flow,—increase of spirit without increase of difficulty; and the Festival Anthem substantiates Mr. Leslie’s claim to idea and to science. We do not fear that in his third grand vocal work our young composer will hazard such a difficulty as exists at the words “At the presence of God,” p. 23 (No. 4) of his Psalm—nor employ his horns, *tromboni*, and other such blatant instruments so profusely as he has here done. The *solos* were taken by Miss Stewart and Mr. Benson. The performance as a whole being excellent.—The other principal singers who appeared at this Concert were Miss Birch, Miss Lucombe, Miss Rainforth, Miss Dolby, Mrs. Noble, Mr. Locket, Mr. Sims Reeves, Mr. Whitworth and Mr. W. Seguin; Herr Ernst and Mr. W. S. Bennett lending their aid as instrumentalists. With regard to the secular act, we must comment on the March and Choral music from ‘Idomeneo’ which was performed. Since we have again and again begged to hear that opera in the theatre, we are bound as honest persons to express our disappointment, and also our conviction that much of what was executed is in style more obsolete than other operatic music which could be cited, fifty years antecedent in date. We are glad, however, to have had our longings set at rest.—One last word:—Mr. Hullah, who already has proved himself to be our best English conductor, is now in a fair way of obtaining such practice as will enable him to add the few last touches of finish to those broad lines of command without which there is no possible musical interpretation.—The days are happily past when any musician was thought competent at a moment’s warning to attitudinize in front of an orchestra, while the same wandered on “at its own sweet will” in a state of democratic indifference to the *baton* and its holder; but with this change the necessity for special moral qualities and for special artistic training has increased. There can be no doubt that St. Martin’s Hall and its tenants make a valuable addition to the musical resources of this metropolis.

SADLER’S WELLS.—A new play by Mr. George Bennett, the actor, was successfully produced on Monday, entitled ‘Retribution.’ In it the author has made the bold attempt at a five-act melo-drama interspersed with poetic illustrations. Of the latter there are several passages highly creditable to his talent; and an occasional opulence of diction which, though borrowed from the old dramatists, indicates a successful study of the best models. In the plot of the play there is little novelty; the elements are to be found in almost any popular romance. The time is, the reign of Charles the First; and the incidents turn upon the villainy of one *Sir Baldwin Briarly* (Mr. George Bennett),—who has secret transactions with both Royalists and Roundheads, and is ready to

betray either for the sake of his own interest. The great object of his present solicitude is to get rid of an ancient foe, *Ralph de Lacy*; for which purpose he engages one *Blackbourn* (Mr. Phelps) to assassinate him,—and which the latter professes to have done at the battle of Edgehill. *Blackbourn* affects to give in to all *Sir Baldwin*’s plans, for the purpose of betraying him:—ultimately, indeed, he proves to be *De Lacy* himself. At a previous period of his life the latter had been seduced by *Sir Baldwin* into jealousy and the slaughter of his wife. His infant son, thus orphaned of one parent and abandoned by the other, is left at the gate of a *Sir Robert Raby* (Mr. Younge) on the day of his own marriage. Of this circumstance, advantage is subsequently taken by *Sir Baldwin* to impute the boy to *Sir Robert*, under whose roof he had been all along protected. *Phillip* is the name of the lad (Mr. Marston); and having grown up with the family, he of course falls in love with *Raby*’s daughter, *Alice* (Miss Glyn). *Sir Baldwin* has a son, *Edwin* (Mr. Dickinson), who, too, is in love with *Alice*. It is to enforce *Edwin*’s claims that the unscrupulous *Sir Baldwin* impresses on the mind of *Alice* that *Phillip* may be her illegitimate brother. Herein is the real tragic interest of the plot. The doubts of *Alice* are allowed to grow and fluctuate up to the end of the fourth act; when, in an interview with *Phillip*, they rise to great agony. To her earnest questioning, which reveals the loving interest that she takes in the subject, he replies with so much of the truth as he is himself acquainted with from information only recently received from *Blackbourn*. This, as may be imagined, is the great scene of the play; and it was performed with striking power by Miss Glyn.—In the scene alluded to between *Blackbourn* and *Phillip*, and which concluded the third act, there is a recognition by *Blackbourn* of his son; but the former as yet conceals his paternity. This situation is wrought up with great skill, and was played by Mr. Phelps with so much energy that he was recalled between the acts to receive the plaudits of the pit. A scene occurs in which *Sir Baldwin* has *Blackbourn* in his power:—the latter being confined in a dungeon. But he extorts his liberty from his oppressor by a daring device. He professes to have a secret, and certain papers safely lodged elsewhere, which convict the latter of treason, but which he will not consent to deliver up on any other condition. *Blackbourn*, however, does not reappear with the promised documents until the catastrophe, when he arrives conducting the king’s troops, who take the traitor into custody. *Sir Baldwin*’s son has just died broken-hearted with hopeless love; but the headman at the same time is prepared to execute *Sir Baldwin*’s deadly orders on the captive father and lover of poor *Alice*. *De Lacy* reveals his name and history,—and in so doing points the moral of “retribution.” The play throughout was carefully acted. Mr. Dickinson, particularly, made quite a feature of the small part of *Edwin*, which he pronounced with equal delicacy and fervour. Mr. Bennett’s *Sir Baldwin* was excellent:—the villainy of the character, moreover, was relieved by certain poetic interpositions, which Mr. Bennett delivered with his usual elocutionary propriety. The part of *Sir Raby* is one of humour,—and Mr. Younge was not the man to make the least of his opportunities. He kept the audience in constant merriment. At the fall of the curtain the leading performers were successively summoned before it.

HAYMARKET.—The Windsor Castle theatricals have suggested to the different stages various representations of Mr. Planché’s ‘Charles the Twelfth.’ The performance at this theatre is by the same actors who supported the characters before Her Majesty. To *Adam Brock* Mr. Wallack gave much hearty force; Mr. Webster as *Charles* was effective, though not original; and Mr. Tilbury as the *Burgomaster* was pompously amusing. *Endigo* was confided to Miss K. Fitzwilliam,—whose singing and acting are both admirable.

DRURY LANE.—The tragedy of ‘Julius Cæsar’ was performed on Thursday, Mr. Vandenhoff being *Brutus*, Mr. Cathcart *Cassius*, and Mr. Anderson *Marc Antony*.

STRAND.—On Thursday, the comedy of ‘The Clandestine Marriage’ was acted. The engagement

of Mrs. Glover has given a vogue here to the five-act comedy.

MARYLEBONE.—The Adelphi melo-drama of 'Jane Loukas,' by Mr. Stirling, has been revived at this theatre, and performed during the week.

MUSIC IN PARIS.

THE last days of the Parisian Carnival offered too many memorable pleasures and noticeable events to be passed over in silence by trusty chroniclers. On Wednesday week we were present at what was announced as positively the last appearance of M. Duprez on the stage. It seems but as if it were yesterday that we were listening in the same theatre to his first triumphs at home,—a period of some dozen years having been the extent of his reign in Paris. Once again did the farewell performance of M. Duprez in the second duet, the *terzetto*, and the final aria from 'Guillaume Tell,' illustrate to us the impossible distance betwixt artist and mechanist. Of course the singer's voice was hoarse, uncertain, forced out with effort; yet, in spite of time and change, the closing utterance of M. Duprez was noble, and more interesting in a mere musical point of hearing than the first or mid-day exhibitions of most other tenors. Whereas they please or charm, he swept away his audience with that fire which no possible jealousy could have "put out," and with such force as the busiest hisses of *claqueurs* must have failed to stifle. This parting display of grand style, grand passion, grand vocal declamation (long-drawn and ponderous, it may be, but always grand), subdued us with the old charm, and proved to us that M. Duprez has left behind him in opera no tenor comparable with himself. In taking leave of this admirable and powerful singer, let it be once more stated, that, with the solitary exception of *Fernand* in 'La Favorite,' not one good part was written for M. Duprez during his whole French career;—but that he was compelled to establish his success in a repertory of "creations" devised to exhibit a predecessor to whom he was diametrically opposite as regarded voice, style, and stage-manner. If in this respect poor Nourrit was the most fortunate among tenors, assuredly M. Duprez was the least so. It is a matter for deep regret that 'Le Prophète' could not be produced during the season of his sovereignty. —There is no leaving the benefit-performance at which M. Duprez bade adieu to the stage, without adverting to one feature of it,—the last act of 'Otello,' for the sake of the *Desdemona* of Madame Viardot Garcia. A piece of acting and singing more noble than this is not on our record. We had the grandeur of the sublimest school of tragedy, and the brilliance of the most consummate Italian vocalization, blended together with a touching, intense simplicity and pathos, which, while they raised the part to its highest,—never belied or contradicted that feminine grace and tenderness which belong to the gentle lady married to the Moor.

In the death scene especially this union of tenderness, force and temperance raised the personation above any that we recollect. As an exhibition of vocal power, too, the Willow Song and the opening of the final duet were unparagoned:—Madame Viardot's voice having gained in aptitude and *timbre* during her winter's career of operatic service. To see and hear that act alone were worth the time, trouble and cost of an old-fashioned journey to Paris.

A few lines will enable us to say, that what we heard of 'Les Porcherons,' by M. Grisar, was utterly disappointing. Such French critics as commend the opera, do so on the ground of its reproducing the older Italian manner. We found merely the slowness of Cimarosa, none of his freshness:—little novelty in the melodies (which, however, are unaffected)—none in the treatment of the orchestra. Yet the work seems to please a larger circle than the enthusiastic knot in the middle of the *parterre* whose peculiar and disciplined delight after a very short experience becomes familiar to the ear of the player in Paris.

There are compensations, however, everywhere. When, three weeks since, the probable appearance of a new composer of first-rate quality was mentioned on good report (*ante*, p. 107), we had little idea of being so soon able personally to verify a promise so full of

interest. Some means of forming a judgment have been afforded to us since the paragraph was written; and though (for discretion's sake) we forbear for the moment from advertising a name, we cannot refrain from trying to gladden others, as we ourselves have been gladdened, by the assurance of the existence of a new, ripe, healthy, noble and individual musical genius. We have never heard anything of French origin so little mannered, so largely melodious, as his compositions,—vocal works in every style and on every scale. We have never found the solid claims of science and the enchantments of poetical imagination more fairly conciliated, or more subtly combined, than in the case of M. —'s writings. There is grandeur in them, but not greatness on stilts,—there is sweetness without love-sick folly,—there is expression keeping close to the text and purpose of the writer without tormenting pedantry,—there is local colour without affectation,—there is a perfect practicability of execution without the slightest puerility or baldness. Most eminent of all is the nobility of their style,—in which the mind of a true and lofty artist speaks, if ever compositions indicated character. In short, the high expectations which rumour had led us to entertain have been borne out to the fullest extent; and we have once more something to expect without fear of disappointment, and to admire without drawback as yet to be discerned.

Great has been the stir in no less august place than the *Conservatoire* of Paris. The *salle* employed for these concerts, which from time immemorial has been refused to every Parisian artist and society on the plea of other location impeding practice, &c., has been by Government gratuitously granted to Mr. Lumley for a series of concerts at which Madame Sontag will sing in costume. Our manager has never been more bountiful in promises than on the present occasion,—since, quoting from an English contemporary, who seems to speak "by warrant," "Madame Sontag has already arrived in Paris, Jenny Lind is expected, and there will be a succession of other stars. Mr. Lumley intends to produce some of the most splendid productions of Gluck, Cherubini, Mozart, Palestrina, Spontini, and other masters; and also the celebrated choruses of the Sistine Chapel." This promise of the Sistine music by way of last charm recalls the flights of fancy which animated all London with hopes of Mendelssohn's 'Tempest' and Meyerbeer's 'Camp de Silesie,' and which drew out the programmes for the series of operatic concerts at Her Majesty's Theatre last spring! Where orchestra, chorus, Sistine singers, and conductor are to come from,—in what manner needful rehearsals are to be provided for,—are among the mysteries of Paris. Meanwhile, the French and Italian artists are as angry and as eager as if everything above paragraphed could really "come to pass" before Easter.—The authorities of the *Conservatoire* are menaced by a far more formidable rival in M. Berlioz at the head of the new Philharmonic Society:—which is to begin its operations in the *Salle St. Cécile* on Tuesday next,—and appears to have been planned on a width of basis and prepared with a deliberation that augur well for its prosperity. Good must come of these things, let the monopolists rail as they will,—in the form of increased activity in that old absolute body which so long has ruled with powerful but somewhat bigotted authority in the Rue Bergère.—The French are twenty years behind the English in their acquaintance with all—save theatrical—music.

MUSICAL AND DRAMATIC GOSSIP.—A "correspondent" of the *Morning Post* early in the week "opened the trenches" as far as regards the Opera campaign of Mr. Lumley by the following promises—which, though not officially accredited, are put forth without an "if" or "they say."—Quoting from the article in question, we may announce that "the season before Easter will begin with the 'Medea' of Simone Meyer, given for Mlle. Parodi. Madame Pasta will come over purposely to superintend the *mise en scène*."—The next opera given before Easter will be Ricci's 'La Prigione di Edimburgo.'—"the composer will visit London to place his opera upon the stage, and conduct it the first night."—Among the earliest operas given after Easter will be Auber's new five-act opera *seria* (founded on the scriptural

parable) 'L'Enfant prodigue,' which is about to be produced at the *Académie* of Paris (some time in April it was said a week since in the Rue Lepelletier).

"M. Auber has consented to visit England during the production of this opera."—"Immediately afterwards, to contrast this work, (!) an *opera buffa* will be produced, entitled 'Il Burgomastro di Saardam.' "An invitation has been addressed to the celebrated author of this opera, Herr Lortzing," to "direct the production of his work on the stage of Her Majesty's Theatre."—After this follows the promise of M. Halévy's 'La Tempesta,' which "will be produced in May:—"M. Scribe and M. Halévy being engaged purposely to come to London on the occasion." Of this work Madame Sontag is to be the heroine, and Signor Lablache the *Caliban*.—(In the last cast of 'The Tempest'—the one drawn in a picture—our admirable *basso* was to be *Prospero*:—who knows but that before the opera is brought out he may be set down for *Ferdinand*, if not for *Ariel*?)—We are further to have 'Il Domino Nero,' an Italian version of 'Le Domino Noir.'—Rumour the last, however, is the most appetizing and remarkable. This sets forth that "in consequence of its immense success when lately executed in Paris by some of the principal *artistes* of Her Majesty's Theatre, it is in contemplation to produce the *chef-d'œuvre* of that great classic master, Gluck, entitled 'Ifigenia in Aulide.' "Now, as we happen to have been recently moving in the musical world of Paris, we should be glad to learn where was gained the "immense success" and by whom? The above programme—which we are fully aware, from past experience, can be disavowed at any moment as being no promise made by authority—proves its own impossibility. Without wasting time in pointing out the difficulty of casting, studying and producing, two grand and entirely new works in two months,—the list of persons "engaged to come over," to superintend, &c. must raise a laugh in every one acquainted with the functions of a resident musical director,—still more in all who have any experience of the *carte blanche* which such *Maestri* as MM. Halévy and Auber demand as to number of rehearsals, *mise en scène*, &c. At whose instance the correspondent of the *Morning Post* conjures up such a *mirage* as the above we do not inquire; it seems, however, to be a circular, and as such put forth with serious intentions:—but we dare assert, without fear of being proved unjust, that a *mirage* it is, and one too conspicuously visionary to deceive any save those who long to be deceived.—Meanwhile, rumours are current to the effect that the band and chorus of Her Majesty's Theatre are about to be reduced.

While announcing that M. Billet's chamber concerts are over, let us commend the excellent and wisely-varied choice of music performed by the concert-giver during the series of meetings. Good service to art and to the player's own reputation are done by the selection of such compositions as the *Sonata* by Pinto and Dussek's 'L'Invocation.' While we are on the subject, let us gratefully acknowledge that this welcome taste for revival was led by M. Moscheles some years ago; though, moving as he did in advance of his public, his efforts were less generally appreciated than they deserved.—Mr. Lucas's musical evenings and the morning performances of the *Musical Union* are still to come in addition to the Chamber Concerts announced.—The *Amateur Society* will commence its concerts on Monday week;—and Mr. Willy, we believe, a series of orchestral performances at St. Martin's Hall on the same evening. Here are life and energy enough, in all conscience, to satisfy the most exacting amateur. Yet, we have still to advert to the recent performance of 'Saul' by the *Sacred Harmonic Society*,—and to the coming presentation of 'Deborah' by Mr. Surman's rival body—as among the events of high interest marking this Lenten (!) period.

It must suffice us, for this week, simply to announce that M. Adam's 'Roi d'Yvetot' was produced on Monday last at the *St. James's Theatre*.

'The Noble Heart,' by Mr. G. B. Lewes, is to be brought forward at the Olympic Theatre on Monday next.—On the same evening a play, 'Old Love and New Fortune,' will be produced at the Surrey Theatre.—We perceive, too, that Mr. Bunn is advertised as about to present himself on the stage of

the St. James's Theatre,—in what form of entertainment is not mentioned.

MISCELLANEA

Singular Meeting of Thieves.—Many of our readers have ere now made acquaintance with a remarkable series of papers which have been for some time past appearing in the columns of the *Morning Chronicle*, in which the pen of Mr. Henry Mayhew has made one of the most striking and important contributions to the social statistics of our time that can be conceived. With a skill into which both courage and perseverance have entered as conspicuous elements, he has gone to the very root of the social sores,—and brought up a set of facts from which it is our first impulse to turn away in hopeless pity and dismay. Our next impulse is, the strong feeling that something *must* be done,—and the comforting one that to a great extent it is possible. Rarely, that we remember, have figures been made so eloquent. The statesman and the philanthropist know from these more of the causes of crime and the means of sorrow in this busy and brilliant metropolis than ever they did before,—and to know these is the first necessary step towards redressing them. The *Chronicle* and its Commissioners have done a holy work:—which has borne fruit already, and must bear more. Mr. Mayhew is a bold and determined labourer on a ground on which we have ourselves for years toiled as our opportunities have permitted. We shall hereafter have occasion, no doubt, to refer to his results and his methods of obtaining them; but meantime we take for our 'Miscellanea' an example of the novel and curious matter which he is obtaining,—because it illustrates at once the courage with which he pursues his object, the mastery which he has obtained over his subject, and the important inferences which he contrives to evolve. The incident of the "sovereign," at the close of the following long quotation, contains a hopeful suggestion that cannot be missed. We borrow from a contemporary, the *Inquirer*.—

A meeting of an unprecedented character was held at the British Union School-room, Shakspeare Walk, Shadwell, on the evening of Monday week. It was convened by the metropolitan Correspondent of the *Chronicle*, for the purpose of assembling together some of the lowest class of male juvenile thieves and vagabonds who infest the metropolis and the country at large; and although privately called, at only two days' notice, by the distribution of tickets of admission among the class in question at the various hunts and dens of infamy to which they resort, no fewer than 150 of them attended on the occasion. At first their behaviour was very noisy and disorderly, but before the close they became peaceable and even respectful in their demeanour. 19 had fathers and mothers still living; 39 had only one parent; and 50 were orphans in the fullest sense of the word, having neither father nor mother alive. Of professed beggars there were 50, and 66 who acknowledged themselves to be habitual thieves. The announcement that the greater number present were thieves pleased them exceedingly, and was received "with three rounds of applause."

When it was announced that one, though only nineteen years of age, had been in prison as many as twenty-nine times, the clapping of hands, the cat-calls, and shouts of "bravo," lasted for several minutes, and the whole of the boys rose to look at the distinguished individual. Some chalked on their hats the figures which designated the sum of the several times that they had been in gaol.

The boys were interrogated as to their manner of life, &c., and their answers should be read by all who are engaged in the work of ragged schools. Our limited space will not allow of much extract.

A lad about twenty was about to volunteer a statement concerning the lodging-houses, by which he declared he had been brought to his ruin, but he was instantly assailed with cries of "Come down!" "Hold your tongue!"—and these became so general, and were in so menacing a tone, that he said he was afraid to make any disclosures, because he believed if he did so he would have, perhaps, two or three dozen of the other claps on to him. (Great confusion.)

The Correspondent of the *Chronicle*: Will it hurt any of you here if he says anything against the lodging-houses? (Yes, yes.) How will it do so?

A voice: They will not allow stolen property to come into them if it is told.

Correspondent: But would you not all gladly quit your present course of life? (Yes, yes, yes.) Then why not have the lodging-house system, the principal cause of all your misery, exposed?

A voice: If they shut up the lodging-houses, where are we to go? If a poor boy gets to the workhouse he catches a fever, and is starved into the bargain.

Correspondent: Are not you all tired of the life you now lead? (Vociferous cries of "Yes, yes; we wish to better ourselves," from all parts of the room.) However much you dread the exposure of the lodging-houses, you know, my lads, as well as I do, that it is in them you meet your companions, and ruin, if not begun there, is at least completed in such places. If a boy runs away from home he is encouraged there and kept secreted from his parents. And

do not the parties who keep these places grow rich on your degradation and your peril? (Loud cries of "Yes, yes.") Then why don't you all come forward now, and by exposing them to the public, who know nothing of the iniquities and vice practised in such places, put an end to these dens at once? There is not one of you here—not one, at least, of the elder boys—who has found out the mistake of his present life, who would not, I verily believe, become honest and earn his living by his industry, if he could. You might have thought of a roving life a pleasant thing enough at first, but you now know that a vagabond's life is full of suffering, care, peril and privations; you are not so happy as you thought you would be, and are tired and disgusted with your present course. This is what I hear from you all. Am I not stating the fact? (Renewed cries of "Yes, yes, yes;") and a voice: "The fact of it is, sir, we don't see our folly till it is too late." Now I and many hundreds and thousands really wish you well, and would gladly do anything we could to get you to earn an honest living. All, or nearly all your misery, I know, proceeds from the low lodging-houses—"Yes, yes, it does, master! it does;" and I am determined with your help, to effect their utter destruction. (A voice: "I am glad of it, sir—you are quite right; and I pray God to assist you.")

The elder boys were then asked what they thought would be the best mode of effecting their deliverance from their present degraded position. Some thought emigration the best means, for if they started afresh in a new colony they said they would leave behind them their bad characters, which closed every avenue to employment against them at home. Others thought there would be difficulties in obtaining work in the colonies in sufficient time to prevent their being driven to support themselves by their old practices. Many again thought the temptations which surrounded them in England rendered their reformation impossible; whilst many more considered that the same temptations would assail them abroad which existed at home.

During the course of the proceedings one of the most desperate characters present, a boy who had been twenty-six times in prison, was singled out from the rest, and a sovereign given him to get changed in order to make the experiment whether he would have the honesty to return the change or abscond with it in his possession. He was informed, on receiving it, that if he chose to decomp with it no proceedings should be taken against him. He left the room amid the cheers of his companions, and when he had been absent a few moments all eyes were turned towards the door each time it opened, anxiously expecting his return to prove his trustworthiness. Never was such interest displayed by any body of individuals. Many mounted the forms in their eagerness to obtain the first glimpse of his return. It was clear that their honour was at stake; and several said they would kill the lad in the morning if he made away with the money. Many minutes elapsed in almost breathless suspense, and some of his companions began to say that so large a sum of money had proved too great a temptation for the boy. At last, however, a tremendous burst of cheering announced the lad's return. The delight of his companions broke forth again and again in long and loud peals of applause, and the youth advanced amidst triumphant shouts to the platform, and gave up the money in full.

Curious Relic.—The Duke of Devonshire on his late visit to his estate in Ireland brought back with him that very curious relic of antiquity, the crozier of the ancient Bishops of Waterford and Lismore, which came into his Grace's hands, we believe, with the property of the Boyles, Earls of Cork. It is of bronze, ornamented with enamel and beads; and if it do not belong (as some antiquaries contend it does) to the eighth or ninth century, it is certainly not of later manufacture than the very commencement of the twelfth century, the reign of Henry the First. It has been privately seen by not a few Irish antiquaries, who are of opinion that it is of the workmanship of that country; and the Duke has kindly consented to its Exhibition at the Society of Antiquaries in London, on an early occasion, in order to ascertain the decision of that learned body as to its precise age and the part of the world where it was made. It seems clear that it did not come originally from Italy.—*Globe*.

Old Paintings Discovered.—During the restoration of a chapel in the church of Saint-Eustache, at Paris, there were discovered, beneath the plaster, some paintings which are attributed to the eminent painter Philippe de Champagne; who was born at Brussels and died at Port-Royal,—at which place he executed some admirable portraits of the Arnauds. It is supposed that these pictures, which decorated the tomb of some great family, had been plastered over during the Revolution. They were discovered in a good state of preservation.—*Brussels Herald*.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.—A Constant Reader—C. H. H.—H. D.—P. L. S.—Sagittarius—T. G.—received.

E. L.—The *Chronicle* mentioned has been received. H. C. S.—We will procure the information which this and other correspondents seek on the subject of the Evening Colleges.

Errata.—P. 157, col. 2, last line. The name of the author of 'Railway and Commercial Information' is Salt, not Holt.—P. 160, col. 2, l. 13, for "Royal" Institution read London Institution.

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